

The Nation

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Cash Deposited in Banks.....	378,298 69
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Market Value of Stocks and Bonds over cost.....	\$59,467 00
Interest accrued and due.....	161,920 37
Premiums in course of collection.....	78,362 13
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1892.

The Week.

A BLOW so destructive as that which the Bar Association has inflicted on Judge Maynard has never, we believe, overtaken a judicial officer in this country, because no such tribunal has ever sat on judicial delinquency. Conviction on impeachment before the Federal or State Senate would be much less serious morally, although involving the loss of office and salary. A Senate is a political body, composed mainly of men in no way prepared, by training or character, for the exercise of judicial functions, and almost sure to make up their minds, to some extent at least, under the influence of considerations not furnished either by the law or the evidence. But the Committee of the Bar Association which has tried Judge Maynard's case are lawyers of the highest standing at the American bar. They would, if converted into a bench of judges, constitute a tribunal such as has not in many a long day, if ever, been seen in this State or any State in the Union. Moreover, seven out of the nine members belong to Judge Maynard's own political party. Their unanimous condemnation has been almost unanimously endorsed by the Bar Association, in itself a picked body of lawyers. The verdict would be, for a man of any moral sensitiveness, absolutely crushing.

The offence of which the Committee convict him is defined by the Penal Code, as they remorselessly point out, as grand larceny in the second degree. Any man who had the moral or mental constitution which the office of judge, even in its lowest stages, calls for, would, on hearing what the most eminent members of his own profession thought of him and what the whole intelligent community is thinking of him, either resign his place and go into obscurity, or resign it and challenge a trial in a criminal court. We fear Judge Maynard will do neither. He will sit still, render decisions which nobody will respect, draw a salary to which the mass of his fellow-citizens think he is not morally entitled, secure in the approval of Governor Flower, Senator Hill, Judge Earle, and his companions in misfortune, the members of the Canvassing Board. But none the less the air in his court and in all courts of the State has been purified by the Committee's report. It has lashed before it "the lazy elements which were stagnating into pestilence." It has shown that there is still, even when the days seem darkest, a public conscience somewhere which can be counted on to make itself thoroughly heard in times of danger, necessity, and tribulation. The community has been laid under obligations to the Bar

Association which will not soon be forgotten, not for finding Judge Maynard guilty, but for taking a great case out of the atmosphere of politics, and deciding it with absolute indifference to political considerations and consequences.

Lord Salisbury's final proposal is that he will renew the *modus vivendi*, with a provision that the arbitrators shall be asked to decide, over and above the questions already submitted to them, whether the United States Government has inflicted "wrongful loss" on British subjects in Bering Sea, and whether the British Government has inflicted wrongful loss on American citizens, and that each side shall pay damages for such wrongful loss as may be charged to it. This seems reasonable enough. But he adds a warning that in the meantime he adheres to his old position that the right of seizure and search of foreign vessels does not exist on the high seas. The Harrisonian doctrine that this power, which we denied to British cruisers in the most celebrated controversy of this century, when exercised on behalf of African slaves, we may ourselves properly exercise for the protection of the Elkinsian seals, does not really call for argument, and does not receive it. What the organs say is, that they are going to exercise it, "by golly," whether it is lawful or not.

Some people are wondering whether there is any such person as the Secretary of State in Washington at the present time. The latest published correspondence between our Government and that of Great Britain on the Bering Sea question does not bear Mr. Blaine's signature. It is signed by Mr. Wharton as Acting Secretary. It is true that Mr. Blaine is ill, but he is not too ill to sign his name or to have it signed by somebody for him. One would suppose that after carrying on so long a correspondence on this subject he would follow it to the end, it being his official duty to do so. It is just possible that he disapproves of Mr. Harrison's Jingo policy and his attempt to force the doctrine of *mare clausum* on Lord Salisbury pending the arbitration, after he (Blaine) had expressly repudiated that doctrine, and that this is the reason why his name is not appended to the latest correspondence. It is not forgotten that Mr. Blaine took a position of dignified conservatism in the Chilean dispute, and that his relations with the President at that time were nearly as "strained" as those between the United States and Chili. It is surprising if true that the Plumed Knight has become a conservative force in the Government, while the Presbyterian elder has become a firebrand. It makes a great difference whether you are a Presidential candidate or not.

The first convention in the West to choose delegates to the Democratic National Convention was held in North Dakota last Thursday, and elected men every one of whom is strongly for Cleveland. A resolution was adopted declaring it "the sense of this Convention that ex-President Grover Cleveland is preëminently the best representative of Democratic principles." In this attitude and action North Dakota sets an example which it is evident will be followed very generally by the older States in that part of the country. Except so far as two or three States may choose delegations committed to at least complimentary votes for "favorite sons," the West promises to stand solid for Cleveland in the National Convention. What is more, its delegates seem likely to go to the Convention this year with a strong purpose to make their influence felt.

The election of Mr. Mills as Senator from Texas is far more than a personal victory for the man. It is the verdict of "the banner Democratic State of the Union" upon the issue between the two factions in the party. It means a deliberate and emphatic declaration by the masses of the party in that great commonwealth, in favor of relegating silver to the background and making the national campaign this year on the tariff issue. No man in the Democratic party has been so conspicuously the representative of one element in the organization as Mr. Mills, and there were in Texas, as everywhere else, men who supposed that he could be beaten because of his pronounced stand. The question was carried to the people, and their answer was so unmistakable that the reactionists were overwhelmed, and all opposition to Mr. Mills finally disappeared. Like the victory for Senator George on the sub-treasury scheme issue in Mississippi a few months ago, this Texas incident illustrates the wisdom of courage and conviction on the part of a public man.

The Iowa Republicans have finally decided to stand by prohibition, and consequently to keep that question as the leading issue in State affairs. The Senate, through the coöperation of three Republicans with all the Democrats, recently passed a high license and local-option bill, and there has been a chance that it might go through the House by a similar combination. But when the bill came up Tuesday week, the Republican side was solid against it, and it was indefinitely postponed by a strict party vote. The Republicans in the House were between the devil and the deep sea. On the one hand, notice had been served upon them by Republicans who believe in prohibition that any one who voted against it would commit political suicide. On the other hand, they had been warned

by many prominent Republican politicians and journals that the party would be ruined unless it should unload prohibition. Apparently the Republican Representatives put their own supposed advantage before the interests of the party. It is a notorious fact that many of them consider prohibition a failure, and believe in the wisdom of substituting high license; but they had been threatened with the vengeance of the prohibition Republicans if they should dare to vote according to their convictions, and they recorded themselves against a bill which they really favor. It remains to be seen whether the course such men have adopted may not prove disastrous to themselves as well as to the party. The people ultimately find out how a Representative really stands on a public question, and have a supreme contempt for the man who votes one way when he believes that he ought to vote the other.

Gerrymandering has never suffered a worse blow than was administered by the Supreme Court of Wisconsin last week, when it declared unconstitutional the act passed by the last Democratic Legislature redistricting the State for legislators and Congressmen in the most grossly partisan manner. Having carried Wisconsin with a sweep in the "tidal wave" of 1890, the Democrats set out to fix things so that the Republicans could not recover control of the Legislature, even if they carried the State by a large majority. In order to accomplish this end, they disregarded the fundamental requirement of the Constitution, that Assembly districts shall be bounded by county lines; cut up counties, lumped together parts of counties, made Republican districts large in population and Democratic small, and in general made as unfair an apportionment as ingenuity could devise. The performance was repugnant to the popular sense of decency, and the unanimous decision of the highest judicial tribunal in the State shows that it is as unconstitutional as it is unfair. The fact should not escape notice that the three Democratic members of the Wisconsin Supreme Court united with their two Republican associates in thus annulling the act of a Democratic Legislature and defeating the plans of the Democratic managers.

Rhode Island is not only the one State of the Union which now holds her State election during the first six months of the year, but also one of the fast diminishing list of States which still refuse stupidly to "lump" elections in November. Hence in this Presidential year her State contest, to be decided on the first Wednesday of next month, takes on a certain national character, especially as it involves the reëlection of Senator Aldrich, an active promoter of the Force Bill. The Democratic vote in the State

during the last few years has been considerably increased from two causes: first, by an Australian ballot law which has checked the purchase of votes, in which the rich Republicans of the State have been proficient and lavish; and, secondly, the substantial removal of the old property qualification by a constitutional amendment adopted four years ago. In 1889 the Democratic candidate for Governor, in a total vote of 43,114, had the large plurality of 4,419, yet failed of a majority and lost his election in the Legislature, where the Republicans had a majority of ten on joint ballot. In 1890 the Democrats had a plurality of 1,560 in the popular vote, and chose their Governor through the Legislature. But last year, although they had a plurality of 1,254, the majority against them in the Legislature was no less than 51 in a total legislative membership of 109. Even in the Legislature of 1890, though it was Democratic on joint ballot, there was a Republican majority of 10 in the State Senate under the curious Rhode Island system which gives Providence, with a population of 132,146, a State Senator, and a Senator also to Jamestown, with a population of 707.

Legislative Governors, therefore, are the rule in Rhode Island, and "Carry the Legislature" is the cry of the parties, particularly in a year like this, when a Federal Senator is to be chosen. Thus local, State, and national questions come to be queerly intermixed. A Rhode Island voter who wants to elect a Democratic Governor may have to seek that result by supporting a bad candidate for the Legislature; or a voter who opposes the reëlection of Aldrich, but wants a Republican Governor, finds himself in practice between the hammer and anvil whether he votes the Republican or the Democratic legislative ticket. Thus such considerations as personal feud or friendship, or the local standing or lack of it of a candidate for the Legislature, under the "majority system" in Rhode Island, disguise the popular verdict just as they do in Connecticut. This year will be the first "hot" election in Rhode Island held under the new ballot law which was passed in 1889. The outcome will be watched with extreme interest, taking place in a State notoriously corrupt, and where, as in many other commonwealths, the Democrats have a natural majority of the votes, and the Republicans the money and a much stronger party machine. The canvass is already disclosing such Republican tactics as the hiring of all the large halls in Providence for the last two weeks of the campaign, "free railroad trains," and special efforts of a not too ethical nature by the same party to capture the new French-Canadian voters.

Maine continues to illustrate the folly of enacting laws which are not sustained by public sentiment. A year ago Neal Dow

succeeded in getting the Legislature to pass a bill which was going to stop liquor-selling "sure," because the liquor-seller would have to go to jail every time he was arrested and convicted. Twelve months have passed, and more liquor is sold than ever. The reason is that the people do not sustain the law. On the one hand, juries will not convict though the evidence of guilt is plain, because they do not think the offence worthy of imprisonment. On the other hand, the judges themselves are so loath to inflict the penalty when conviction is secured that they will not send the criminals to jail, even though it seems questionable whether they legally enjoy any discretion in the matter. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presided at the recent term of court held in Bangor, a city where the liquor traffic is conducted openly, and he let off all of the sellers who were convicted, upon payment of fines, not a single jail sentence being imposed. A district lodge of Good Templars has passed resolutions declaring

"That we view with indignation the action of the Presiding Justice of the Supreme Judicial Court at the February term held in Bangor, as tending to bring into disrepute our prohibitory laws, and defeat the ends of justice, said action being in our minds arbitrary and illegal, and in utter defiance of all law and right, nullifying the law and preventing the punishment of the criminals who have engaged in the liquor traffic in defiance of the expressed will of the people."

The Good Templars further resolved that the action of the Chief Justice was "illegal, unrighteous, and subversive of the rights of the people who desire to see the law rigidly enforced," and declared that "we will earnestly call upon our representatives in the Legislature to inquire into the matter, and take such further action as the facts ascertained demand." As to the legality of the action in question, most people will incline to the view that the opinion of the highest judge in the State is more valuable than that of a Good Templars lodge. The important fact in the matter is, the readiness of the Chief Justice to avoid imposing the severer penalty when he might have done so. In this he only reflects the dominant sentiment of the community, for everybody knows that an overwhelming majority of the people in Bangor do not believe it is the fair thing to send a man to jail for selling a glass of whiskey. So long as this remains the feeling of the community, it will be useless for Good Templars to adopt resolutions, or Legislatures to go through the form of enacting statutes.

The "White Cap" outrages in Indiana still continue. The latest occurred in Crawford County, and was perhaps the most extraordinary on the list. A band of men seized one Mattox on a charge of stealing, and dragged him some distance with a rope around his neck, when they discovered that he was innocent, and released him, after making themselves

known to him and exacting a promise that he would not betray them. Mattox finally concluded that such a promise was not binding, and gave the names of his assailants to the Prosecuting Attorney. The remarkable feature of the case is that among the names are those of two preachers, one County Commissioner, and two other well-known citizens, who are church members. Four of the number have been arrested and held to await the action of the Grand Jury. Although these outrages have been perpetrated in Crawford County for years, the Indianapolis *Journal* says that this is the first earnest movement which has been made to break up the White Caps. In all its aspects this White Cap business is one of the most surprising phenomena ever known in a presumably civilized community, and it is a terrible reproach to the State of Indiana that such outrages have been permitted year after year without any serious effort to stop them.

The "maple-sugar vote" in New England is greatly dissatisfied with the workings of the McKinley Law. That measure removed the duty on imported sugar, but offered the home producer a bounty as compensation. But the new system does not suit the Vermont owners of maple groves at all. They complain that they are being ruined by the pauper maple-sugar of Canada. Congressman Powers drew this alarming picture of the situation in a speech delivered in the House a few days ago:

"The maple-sugar production of Vermont is about 15,000,000 pounds. The production of Canada, just across the line, is 20,000,000. But the possibilities of production in Canada are perfectly astounding; 100,000,000 pounds might be produced there; and since this bounty was given to the maple-sugar producer there have been ten car-loads of maple-sugar imported into this country from Canada where before there was but one. It is imported to the city of Chicago, and there adulterated, and is sold, as I am told, through the West for Vermont maple-sugar."

So desperate is the situation of the Vermonters that Mr. Powers has introduced a bill to restore the old duty and to repeal the bounty. One of his objections to the bounty system is that the red tape necessary in order to get it compels the producer to lose the early market on maple-sugar, and forfeit more than two cents a pound if he undertakes to secure the bounty. Mr. Powers declares that, "if the old tariff upon sugar were restored, so as to keep foreign sugar out and leave the market to our own product, then our maple-sugar producers would be vastly better off than they are now." All of which illustrates again the difficulty of suiting people by any device to put money in their pockets by way of the Federal Treasury.

Again has British justice been taking a turn at literature, though this time its decision is not so bewildering as some others we have been obliged to record. The publishers of the London *Literary World* were

sued for £1,000 damages for libel, the said libel asserted to consist in their review of a certain book. This was entitled 'Roughing it after Gold,' and was written by a Capt. Devereux, though published under an assumed name. His grievance was two-fold: first, his book was reviewed under the head of "New Novels," although it purported to be a faithful record of actual experience; and, second, the review stated, in substance, that the author was, on his own showing, a barefaced liar. The doughty Captain thereupon wrote the publishers, revealing the martial authorship of the volume and demanding a retraction. Not satisfied with the partial disclaimer which he received; he brought suit as stated. But on the witness-stand he was obliged to admit on cross-examination that one incident in the book—a description of election methods in Chicago, and of his own experience in running for office in that city—was highly colored, and, in fact, the thing that was not. Thereupon the learned Judge asked the jury if they saw anything in the plaintiff's case, and when those incorruptible freemen answered in the negative, gave judgment for the defendants with costs. This fable teaches that a critic sometimes knows how to classify a book better than its author; and also contains the moral that it is foolish to sue a writer for calling you a liar, only to have it proved in court that the charge was true.

At the time the correspondence in regard to the Spanish treaty was made public, it was seen that a clause in Mr. Blaine's last letter declared that the President would take into consideration the Spanish request for lower duties on Cuban tobacco, and that "this matter will be the subject of a separate note." It was alleged by some that this meant, what it certainly did not expressly say, that the President would send a special message to Congress on the subject. How the Spaniards themselves came to have the idea that such was the meaning of it may be seen from a letter of the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs to the Spanish Minister at Washington, made public in the course of the recent debate in the Spanish Senate. The letter was dated April 30, 1891, and gave a recapitulation of the negotiations leading up to the treaty. It then said that Mr. Foster, the special envoy, "promised, in the name of his Government, that the President of the republic would make use of his authority to ask Congress, on its reassembling, to make the reduction in the duties on tobacco which the Spanish Government so much desired." This promise was not kept, and it would seem to be in order for the two gentlemen who were responsible for making it and then breaking it, to explain their conduct.

"Fraternity with Claws" is the suggestive title of an article printed in a late

number of *América en París*, a Spanish periodical published as the organ in France of Spanish Americans. It reviews the gushing days of the Pan-American Congress, and the stern realities of the McKinley Bill, with its retaliatory clause which followed, runs over the diplomatic relations of our Government with Hayti and Chili, and takes up the recent levying of discriminating duties on the products of Colombia, Venezuela, and Hayti. It says: "No one has a right to complain when he is abused or insulted in any place where he has gone to treat as an equal with one who is stronger than he is, and who has already shown his style of conduct." The writer says that if "any one in Spanish America believed in the sincerity" of the friendly professions of the United States, he never heard of him, and that, if there ever were such a credulous individual, the truth must have dawned upon him at last. In the case of Chili, he says, the "Washington Government imposed its will, and violated in the most shameless and flagrant manner the laws of international intercourse recognized by all civilized nations." After this has come the enforcement of retaliation, although in the case of Colombia, and probably Venezuela, preexisting treaties were thereby overridden. A person who should act in this way in private affairs, says the article, would be considered as "either a lunatic or a rogue." It closes by saying:

"The great nation of North America has not, and never has had, any real liking for the other countries of the continent. If it wishes to win them over to-day, it is because, burdened by the weight of its protectionist chains, it desires to get them to help carry the load. That is the whole of it. Time will tell if our republics allow themselves to be deceived."

Argentine securities have been picking up in London for the past few weeks on the strength of a reported improvement in Argentine finance and commerce. There appears to have been a rally to some extent, due in part to the apparent settling of the political question, the starting up of new industries, and the expansion of agricultural production. Some important experiments in tobacco-growing point to an increase of resources in that direction, while the discovery of coal-fields, so considerable that the railway companies have declined to renew their contracts with English mine-owners for the supply of their fuel, and the working of some rich salt deposits near the harbor of San Blas, mark other encouraging developments. Still, the gravity of the situation should not be forgotten. Argentina is now paying no interest whatever on her foreign debt, yet even so is running behind. On the basis of the estimates for 1892, a deficit of \$1,000,000 is to be looked for; and when we remember that an estimated surplus of \$10,000,000 for 1891 turned out to be a shortage of \$600,000, this forecast is far from reassuring.

THE END OF FREE COINAGE.

THE country passed a dangerous crisis last Thursday, when the silver-men in the House of Representatives were forced to postpone their attempt to pass a free-coinage bill, after a tie-vote had been taken on the question of tabling it. This vote was more favorable to the friends of sound money than we had anticipated. Most people had expected a majority of about twenty in favor of the Bland Bill, while Mr. Bland himself had been reckoning on forty. The Republicans came up to the fight nobly, and gave all of their votes, except eleven, against the measure. Sixty-six of the 148 votes cast against it were Republican. The eleven who voted in favor of it were either from the silver-producing States or from the far West, except one, Mr. Vincent A. Taylor of Ohio. If this gentleman had voted with his party the bill would have been killed instead of being postponed. By the subsequent decision of Speaker Crisp not to report a closure rule for a vote on the Bland Bill unless a majority of the Democrats in the House should request it in writing, it has practically been killed.

While awarding to the Republicans the credit they well deserve for their action, so nearly unanimous, on this bill, we must extend congratulations to the anti-silver Democrats for the splendid fight they have made. In this struggle the names of Tracey of New York, Williams of Massachusetts, Harter of Ohio, Rayner of Maryland, Brawley of South Carolina, and Cockran of New York will be long remembered. And it serves as a fresh illustration of the recuperative power of the nation that all of these names, except that of Mr. Tracey, are new in this controversy. Not one of them, except Tracey, was in the last Congress, and not one, except Tracey and Cockran, has been in any previous Congress. Among the Southern Democrats was one brave man whose lofty course recalls the example of Mr. Lamar in 1878. Mr. Lamar was then Senator from Mississippi. His Legislature had passed resolutions instructing him to vote for the silver bill of that day. He said he could not conscientiously do so, nor could he conscientiously refrain from voting. He believed that casting his vote against the bill would be signing his own political death warrant, but he nevertheless did cast it as his conscience told him was right. His State not only forgave him, but took him into higher confidence than ever, and promoted him by successive steps to the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, where he now sits. In like manner Mr. Brawley has come forward, and after delivering one of the most convincing speeches against the Bland Bill, cast his vote against it at every stage. There is something touching in the conclusion of Mr. Brawley's speech. He said:

"If by my voice and vote upon this bill I have failed to satisfy the wishes of any portion of my constituents, and if my course herein puts an end to my public service, as many of my

friends warn me that it will, I wish those of my people who have honored me with their confidence to know that my conclusions have been reached after most careful consideration, moved by the most sympathetic regard for their interests and wishes. There has been the strongest and most subtle temptation to earn their approval by hypocritical conformity with what is represented to be their will; but my convictions as to the injurious effect of this bill have been so strong that such mendacious compliances have been impossible to me, and dear as their approval would be to me, I hold my conscience higher than their praise."

There is one man on the other side of the chamber who has won golden opinions from all sorts of people, namely, ex-Speaker Reed. From first to last he has fought the Bland Bill on principle, not on grounds of mere party expediency. He has battled against the measure in order to beat it, not merely to "put the Democrats in a hole." Whatever step was parliamentary and calculated to prevent the bill from becoming a law, he has advocated and urged upon his party associates. In this he has shown the highest party wisdom. The business in hand is too serious for trifling and dodging and "skirmishing for position." Silver has taken another tumble, having fallen to 39 pence per ounce in London, and 85½ cents here. At this rate the bullion value of a silver dollar is only 65¾ cents. To take any step, or cast any vote, which may subject the fortunes of the people, their savings and their wages, to such a fluctuating standard of measurement cannot be good party policy for either Republicans or Democrats.

Looking at the subject in its broader aspects, we think that the country has passed the point of danger, not merely for this Congress but for all Congresses and all time. As there was a culminating point in the greenback craze seventeen years ago, so, we think, has the culminating point in the silver craze been reached and overpassed. Discussion, real discussion, where silver is not a side issue, but the main thing, is fatal to it every time and in every place. Discussion killed the greenback heresy in Ohio in 1875. It killed the silver heresy in the same State last year. It has killed it in the House of Representatives now—a House that was proclaimed to be "two-thirds silver" when it was elected (although elected on another issue) in the autumn of 1890. The American people are not prepared to sanction the principle of paying a hundred cents of debt with 68 cents worth of anything. The more that principle is discussed, the fewer votes will be found for it either in Congress or at the ballot-box.

THE MORAL OF JUDGE MAYNARD'S FALL.

WE do not believe it would be possible to explain how a man of Judge Maynard's position and antecedents came to commit the offence of which the Bar Association has found him guilty, without going back to the extraordinary growth of unscrupulousness in politics which we have been

witnessing during the last ten or fifteen years. This unscrupulousness had its origin in a tradition of the war cherished by a great many Republicans, and in some degree excusable, that Democrats were a kind of traitors whom it would be highly unsafe to intrust with the conduct of the Government, and who, in fact, if they got into office, would probably destroy the public credit, and distribute the contents of the Treasury among old slaveholders and ex-rebels. This notion in some degree accounted for the process by which Tilden was defeated in 1876, and it was made to do more and more service as the party grew weaker with the country. It played a large part in the operations against Cleveland in 1884, when it died out.

But it did not die out without calling into existence a new type of Republican politician, of which Messrs. Quay and Reed and Ingalls are good specimens, each in his own field, who hold that anything that will beat the Democrats is lawful, that no man need be ashamed of any perversion or evasion of the law, or disregard of precedent, or abuse of power which helps his party to get what it wants. Ingalls committed the folly of putting the creed of these people into words, in his famous "iridescent dream" speech, and suffered for it; but the others secretly applauded him. They held with him that in politics as in war all was fair that succeeded. Quay carried the election of 1888 on this theory, and Reed ruled the Fifty-first Congress on it. Reed's performances were worse in their influence than Quay's, because Reed is a man of good personal character, as Quay is not, and because they were public, while Quay's were secret, and because they were accompanied by an immense amount of bullying which exasperated the Democrats all over the country to the last degree and made them thirst for vengeance. They were humiliated by their apparent helplessness. Their managers were taunted with inferiority to the Republicans in "smartness," and upon the ease with which they were cozened and put down. There thus grew up in their ranks a longing for tricksters who would match Quay and Reed and Dudley as cheats and bullies, and "get there" somehow.

If we are not greatly mistaken, it is this which explains that most mysterious phenomenon of American politics—the rise of David B. Hill to a commanding position in his party. If it does not account for this rise, certainly nothing else does. Hill, according to our view, came forward to supply a new party want—that is, a leader thoroughly competent to fight the devil with fire, and familiar with all the tricks of the political game as the Republicans were playing it, and as he had long played it himself on the ward and county stage. Ideas, or opinions, or eloquence, or magnetism were not required of him. All he was asked was if he knew how to bribe, to "deal,"

to make false counts, and, in short, by hook or by crook, to make majorities. He showed the wax on his finger-ends, the marks on the cards, the way of getting the aces up his sleeve, and produced a very complete thimble-rigging "layout." He proved so satisfactory to the new school that he received one bit of political preferment after another—

"And moving up from high to higher,
Became on Fortune's crowning slope
The pillar of a party's hope."

It was not wonderful that Judge Maynard's imagination was affected by the apparently brilliant success of this disgraceful career. It surely seemed as if the true road to glory was traced out by Hill's tracks. It appeared after the November election as if the Democrats had been so dazzled by Hill's juggling dexterity that they had thrown overboard in disgust the one candidate produced by them in thirty years whom the country at large recognized as both a statesman and an honest man, and had resolved, in fact, on dismissing all "eminent counsel," and having their work hereafter done by shysters—like the firms in the dry-goods district who now send their lawyer in the cart to seize the goods when they hear of the sudden failure of one of their customers. There was, in truth, for a month after the last election, as we all remember with shame, much chuckling in the Democratic ranks over "Dave" Hill's dexterity. It was not till he began to prepare for his "snap convention," that is, to pick the pockets of his own companions, that disapproval of his ways began to develop itself.

It is not surprising that Judge Maynard and even such men as Mr. John Bogart and Mr. Rice should have been deluded into the notion that cheating was to be no longer damaging to reputation. They, one might say naturally, seized the first chance that offered itself of winning some of Hill's fame. But they came a little too late. The public forbearance was exhausted; the public conscience had waked up to a perception of the frightful consequences to the State and nation of further continuance on the path of competitive knavery and fraud. Judge Maynard's own profession felt the necessity of arresting him and bringing him to justice. There is no calling put in such peril as the lawyer's by the destruction among men of mutual faith and confidence, by successful defiance of the law. The action of the Bar Association has, therefore, come upon the political world like the action of Moses when he found the Israelites had in his absence set up the golden calf. He slew three thousand of them in spite of the excuses of Aaron, who said they insisted on his making "gods for them who should go before them, for as for this Moses, the man that brought them up out of the land of Egypt, they knew not what had become of him." So Aaron manufactured a golden calf for them, and doubtless all the weak heads thought a good-sized golden calf was as a leader worth ten Moseses.

SINKING FUNDS.

The Nineteenth Century for March has an interesting article on the dilemma in which the London Metropolitan Council finds itself. Greater London, as it might be called, is an aggregate of parishes which has had a sort of unification of municipal interests (represented by the Metropolitan Board, now Council) for less than forty years. For general improvements, such as the building of sewers, the Council was authorized to borrow money and to establish sinking funds therefor. These metropolitan stocks, issued at 3½ and 3 per cent. interest, are now above par. The law is explicit that the Council can raise money by taxation only for the exact difference between its income and outgo. In the former it must include all interest on investments, and in the latter a stipulated amount for purchases of stock at or below par for the sinking fund. The Council lent its money to the vestries within the popularly understood, but not the corporate, limits of the city, and since the rate of interest on its loans exceeded the rate on its public debts, it took the difference towards paying the premium on the stock purchased for the sinking funds. This the *Nineteenth Century* says has been declared illegal, so that the whole of the income of the Council, from whatever source derived, must be credited in its accounts before the rate of taxation can be determined.

This leaves the annual appropriation for the sinking funds from taxation without the usual investment, since the public debt is above par and by law no premium can be paid and charged in the tax budget. This Metropolitan stock comes due in 1929 and must be paid from sinking funds. The Council under the present law has two courses open to it. One is to continue lending money to subordinate parishes. The difficulty here is that it will be impossible to collect all this large amount of money from these various debtors, so as to have in hand the cash necessary to pay off the public stocks in that year. The investment is no doubt safe enough, but a municipality does not levy taxes in order to invest the proceeds. The sole aim of the sinking fund is to pay off the public debt at maturity, but not before; and if its sums cannot be used to buy in its own debts at a premium, it is by no means easy to say what should be done with such large amounts of money. Even if uninvested, the taxpayers lose the interest on such part of the public debt as would otherwise be purchased.

Another course before the Council, and one pursued by that body, is to lend the money to itself by using the sinking funds for further improvements instead of creating new debt. But in this case the funds so used are credited to a sort of construction account, and this account by law is liable to the public debtors the same as a sinking fund would be. This practically leaves the difficulty as great as ever, for in 1929 the actual cash must be forthcoming from that account or from the particular

sewers, etc., covered by it. This recalls the sinking-fund cases in New York city, in which it was contended that the city sinking funds should be deducted from the city's total debt before the limitation of 10 per cent. on the assessed valuation should be applied.

One of the suggested remedies in the London case is a Parliamentary law allowing the Council to purchase its debt in the open market at a premium. Very likely this would be better for the taxpayers than letting the funds lie idle or investing them in loans which could not be turned into cash at maturity of the municipal debt; yet this premium paid represents just so much loss to the municipality, for the creditor would have to accept par in the end. In spite of all this, the English writer is firm in the belief that all municipal debts should by some means—sinking funds presumably—be paid off in sixty years. Dr. Price advanced his theory of sinking funds a century ago, and though his views were afterwards critically examined and materially modified in public practice, there yet remains a feeling that a sinking fund has a mysterious efficacy for the removal of debt in national, municipal, and corporate affairs. Mr. Henry C. Adams, in his excellent work on 'Public Debts,' has made very clear the fact that governments have but one source of revenue—taxation—and so far as the expedient of laying aside moneys for the extinguishment of a public debt tends to confuse this fact, the practice is misleading. Cossa, in his work on 'Taxation,' says of sinking funds:

"The complexity of the system, the expenses, the application of the funds for other uses which is inevitable in economic or political crises, and the need of fresh loans have almost always neutralized the advantages that were expected to result from this much-exalted extinction of the public debt."

The question of the wisdom of establishing sinking funds while borrowing fresh money may be illustrated by the practice of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, one of the few railway companies which keep up large sinking funds carefully. In 1890 the direct application from income, together with the interest on the company's own bonds kept alive in those funds, amounted to more than 2 per cent. on the share capital. At the same time the company is issuing other bonds for further extensions and improvements. It would be difficult to show a good economic reason for such a policy. The stockholders certainly lose a possible dividend, while the lien of the bondholders is not made more valuable, because the property is worth more than the mortgage in any case. It should be borne in mind that national and corporation finance rest on different bases. The Federal Government is not "in business" in the sense that a railway is. We may agree that a nation ought to pay off its debt, without thereby committing ourselves to the theory that a corporation ought to do the same. Mr. Adams, in one of his statistical

reports to the Inter-State Commission, speaks of our railway debt as "coming to be a perpetual encumbrance on the industries of the country"; yet his theory just alluded to, that there is no debt payment possible except from revenue, applies also to corporate affairs. Our railways could clear off their bonded debt from earnings only by increasing their tariffs so as to earn annually an extra sinking-fund charge, a course we all know to be impossible. Turning bonds into stocks would not alter their character as capital, but would deprive the shareholders of the advantage of obtaining money at a low rate of interest, thus leaving to themselves any profit remaining.

A municipality, as to its finances, occupies a position midway between the general government and the private corporation. A city raises its revenues from taxation like the nation at large, but also may enter upon a business undertaking like the supplying of water and gas to its citizens, and may properly charge to the citizens a sum sufficient to pay running expenses and to contribute something towards the extinguishment of that particular debt. But on the question of the general debt of the city, that part that approaches nearest to national financing, it is not so clear that the establishment of a sinking fund adds all that was expected towards the solution of the problem. The constitutional limitation put on borrowing is much more of a safeguard to holders of municipal debt than any sinking fund can be, and with the rapid increase of wealth and population among our American cities it is a question whether under this limitation we need any further taxation for contributions to such funds. So far as London is concerned, to an outsider its difficulties seem largely technical; so that what that aggregation of parishes really needs is not sinking-fund refinements so much as full harmony of interests in what are really, though not yet altogether legally, matters of municipal concern.

THE DECAY OF PROFESSIONAL MANNERISMS.

WE do not remember whether Carlyle, in his book on the clothes-philosophy, explained the origin of the old idea that each profession should have its distinctive dress. It may have been due to an unconscious imitation in human society of nature's method of "protective colors" in the animal world; so that a man need be in no more danger of taking a lawyer for a clergyman than a bird is of snapping up a poisonous caterpillar in the thought that it is a nutritious worm. However that may be, there can be no question that the use of a professional garb is rapidly passing away. Its greatest persistence has been in the two most conservative of all the professions—the ministry and the law—but even there it has lost a great deal of ground. In this country, at least, full-bottomed wigs and the dress of the old-style lawyer, such

as the late B. H. Brewster used to array himself in to the end of his days, are now a pure anachronism. And as for the ministry, the alarming experience of the Westerner who hunted all day in company with a doctor of divinity without once "suspicionin' thet the chap b'longed to the prayin' gang," is growing more possible every year. We need not stop to point out the same process in other callings. The accentuation of a man's profession by his dress is mostly a thing of the past.

But this outward and visible sign is only a witness to an inward change even more striking. There used to be certain mental presumptions and prejudices connected with the several professions—a sort of lofty assumption of privilege, an air of professional mystery, a kind of waving away of the uninitiated—which were no less a mark and accompaniment of a particular calling than was a peculiar garb, but which, with that, have been very greatly broken down. Thus it used to be very common for a theologian to make some fine-spun distinction, and refuse to accept the inferences which the ordinary reason would draw from it, on the ground that only the "theological mind" was fitted to pass judgment upon it. When Lyman Beecher was introducing his improvements into Calvinism, he put forth the proposition that the Creator did not desire the damnation of the non-elect "in itself considered," but did, "all things considered." He was naturally indignant when some non-theological mind posted placards in Boston representing him, first as an angel of light, labelled "Lyman Beecher, in himself considered," and then as a messenger of darkness, with the inscription below, "Lyman Beecher, all things considered." Those were days in which privilege of clergy could be pleaded with some effect; but few theologians nowadays would claim exemption for their arguments from the ordinary canons of logic.

This city and State have recently seen a curious instance of the survival of a similar idea in the legal profession. A clear statement of fact was before the public, upon the strength of which the press in general and the mass of intelligent men pronounced a judicial officer of the State guilty of a villany, if not a crime. But there were those who came forward to tell ordinary people that they had no right to an opinion on the subject because they had not a "legal mind"; and they thereupon proceeded to becloud the matter with a technical argument in defence, bristling with citations of cases and precedents. Luckily, the committee of the Bar Association, with at least as large a stock of "legal mind" as Judge Maynard's defenders, swept away the obfuscation with which it was sought to enwrap the subject; but the important thing to notice is, that they came back to the same simple statement of actions and their natural interpretation, which had all along been dwelt upon in the press,

and which had served to justify the popular verdict of condemnation. The entire incident is a very wholesome rebuke to the unfounded claim that a professional opinion of the morality of an act, or set of acts, is of more value than the judgment of any mind of average intelligence.

This is by no means to deny special aptitudes or attainments, or to impeach the value of expert and specialist work upon which so much of advance in knowledge is founded. There is undoubtedly such a thing as a "legal mind," in the sense of a mind naturally endowed with the power to grasp general principles of law and to deduce their fruitful consequences; and when such native powers are severely trained and fed by the results of prolonged industry, they go to make up a legal specialist of a high order. Such a lawyer's opinion of what the law, in any given case, is, or was intended to be, of the constitutionality of a particular enactment, or the legality of a novelty in legislative or corporate practice, must necessarily be worth more than an ordinary man's. Yet observe that what this amounts to is really only that he is best competent to tell us what the facts actually are; his judgment of the moral bearings of those facts may gain nothing from his exceptional legal attainments.

There is often a surprising failure to notice that a necessary implication of our modern system of specialists is, that a man out of his specialty is no better than any other person. Thus it was hailed as a knock-down blow for the pretensions of modern scientists when a distinguished lawyer declared, some years ago, that he had examined the writings of Darwin and Tyndall and Huxley, and found their conclusions not borne out by their evidence. What he meant was, that their conclusions could not be proved to a jury under the strict rules for the admission of evidence; not seeing how many of the propositions of modern science are built upon inductions of the widest scope, that necessarily include a great deal of moral and cumulative and analogical evidence of a sort which no judge would let go before a jury in a murder trial, but which is absolutely irresistible to the mind not tied down to the technicalities of legal evidence. Yet Tyndall himself did not stick to his last any better than the lawyer, when he essayed to lend his scientific authority to the condemnation of Mr. Gladstone's Irish bills. It is so easy, said the cynical French critic, not to write a five-act play, and it might seem in like manner to be very easy not to think you knew everything because you know some things better than any one else; yet experience shows that it is one of the hardest things in the world for some men.

We might show how the tendency away from professional affectation has had great effects in other callings than the legal and clerical. The novelist or the poet of to-day does not need to assume an air of peculiar wisdom, or maintain an ap-

pearance of great mystery about his art, any more than he needs to wear a dirty collar and long hair. The editor does not need to have it supposed that he is always seated at his desk, in telephone communication with all the world, surrounded by the accumulated learning of the ages, and making "copy" with the inspired air of a man sitting on the Delphic tripod. All around there is a decided gain in simplicity and unaffectedness. The old professional mannerisms linger on the scene only to be laughed at. Men were never so much respected for knowledge gained by tireless and long-continued application, and were never so much ridiculed for owl-like airs of supernatural wisdom, or for pretending that they are exempt from the fallibility and limitations of other mortals.

AN ATTEMPT TO NOBBLE THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

LONDON, March 5, 1892.

THE fame of Mr. Tate, millionaire sugar-refiner and patron of modern British academic art, may not have reached America, but for the last year or longer no name has been more prominent than his in the English art-world. Coming forward as a public benefactor, he has been treated, his friends complain, as a public nuisance. Having made a munificent offer to the Government, first of a collection of pictures valued by himself at I do not know what phenomenal sum, and next of £80,000 to build a gallery worthy of it, he raised, no doubt greatly to his own surprise, such a storm of abuse and opposition that to-day comes the news of the withdrawal of his offer. The story, interesting because it reveals a healthy reaction against the old British sentimentalism in dealing with all art matters, may be briefly told.

Mr. Tate, having accepted the Royal Academy as his standard and possessed himself of a long series of "pictures of the year," felt that it was selfish to reserve these treasures solely for his own delight, and presented them to the National Gallery. Of the generosity of his intention there could be little question; of the benefit of his gift to the nation there was far less certainty. Besides, he hampered it with conditions: the Trustees of the Gallery must take all his canvases or none. Now, too often the "picture of the year" is far from being a picture of all time, and the Trustees, with the good sense that distinguishes the present management of the collection in Trafalgar Square, politely but firmly refused the gift. They already feel the disadvantage of similar presentations and bequests made and accepted in the past. Their refusal, welcomed by the few, was violently criticised by the many at the time, and this criticism to Mr. Tate represented the eagerness of the British public to enjoy his rejected masterpieces. To establish a gallery of British art was the next proposition, and an anonymous benefactor, who in the course of a few days turned out to be Mr. Tate himself, came forward with a promise of £80,000 to build the necessary gallery, where British art could rally round his collection and be freed from the contamination of foreign schools, if the Government would provide a suitable site; and here again—fortunately as it now turns out—Mr. Tate made his conditions: he was to be the judge of the suitability of the site selected. On the other hand, he now agreed that only those of his pictures which were passed by a certain committee—the com-

mittee to be formed chiefly from Royal Academicians represented in the collection—need be hung. As has since been said, the jingle of golden guineas dazzled the Government and the public alike. But still there was more than one hitch. The original idea was to gather together in Mr. Tate's gallery not only the pictures given by him, but all the genuine British masterpieces from the National Gallery and the South Kensington Museum, thus despoiling two fine collections. But again the Trustees of the former institution objected, and there was so loud an outcry from influential quarters against such vandalism that this proposition was dropped. Then a new unlooked-for difficulty arose. Mr. Tate and the Government could not come to terms upon the question of site. One place after another was suggested and refused by either the former or the latter. For a vacant lot on the Embankment, which would have answered the city, its owner asked too extravagant a price. The piece of ground at South Kensington which Mr. Tate decided would please him, the Science Department, with some show of righteous anger, declared had been promised to them. And so it went on. Mr. Tate would not build his gallery where he could, he could not build it where he would. With the re-opening of Parliament the matter was once more brought before the Government. Last week Mr. Goschen wrote to offer Mr. Tate a plot of land near the South Kensington Museum, for which the nation would have to pay £15,000. To-day is published Mr. Tate's answer, declining not only to build on the piece of land suggested, which seems to him wholly inadequate, but to build at all or to give his pictures to an ungrateful country: he withdraws his offer.

While disapproval of the site finally selected is given by Mr. Tate as the reason for this step, a clause in his letter referring to the "in some respects uncalled-for opposition" aroused by his scheme, supplies the real explanation. The opinion of the younger artists and art-critics, who are fast becoming a power in the land, was strong against his Gallery, and in the end they have carried the day. The war was fierce, for Mr. Tate had his supporters and defenders, but that many of these were found among dealers and time-servers who call themselves critics was scarce an argument in his favor. For a month past the daily and weekly papers have been discussing the matter with great earnestness and vigor, as it was known that upon the new decision of the Government depended the ultimate fate of Mr. Tate's now notorious collection. If his pictures were really great works of art, there would have been no opposition whatever; but they are chiefly the productions of popular painters of the day, whose fame in many cases is already on the decline, and in the course of another generation they would prove as great a burden upon the nation as the pictures of Sheepshanks and many another well-meaning man who has presented or left his private collection to the country. It is safe to say that not more than two would, as works of art, ever find their way into the National Gallery. When the plan of the one and only Gallery of British Art fell through, then it was said, why not let Mr. Tate's collection form the nucleus of a British Luxembourg? At a glance this proposition seemed plausible enough. But has not London already this nucleus in the pictures bought by the Chantrey Bequest Fund and hung at South Kensington—or rather would it not have, if the Fund were managed as it should be? Besides, the wretched daubs and rubbish that fill the

German Luxembourgs, started in similar fashion, should serve as an awful warning against making a private collection the foundation for a public gallery; that is, if the public gallery is to be of the least value or service to anybody. Sentimentalists may exclaim at the generosity of the gift; practical men should consider its intrinsic merits and ultimate effects. That enough practical men to make their influence felt in sentimental England have been found is a triumph. An excellent precedent has been established, and far more good has been derived from Mr. Tate's offer of his pictures than if they had become the property of the nation.

N. N.

Correspondence.

CONFESIONS OF A MYTH-MAKER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the favorite situations of the modern novelists is the awakening of a once respectable character to its own turpitude; the sudden revealing of an unsuspected moral disintegration, the final result of a long series of bad acts. Tito denies his connection with Baldassarre in the Rucellai Gardens; Bartley Hubbard finds himself disgraced in the Cleveland station; MacPherson discovers that he is known to be the writer of *Ossian*. I felt myself Tito, Bartley, and still more MacPherson, when I read Mr. Samuel Willard's letter in the *Nation* of March 24, on "A Myth of the Confederacy." Under such painful circumstances of detection, the only solace of the criminal is to plume himself upon the magnitude of his offence. But even that comfort is denied me: I cannot conscientiously feel that I am entitled to such an advertisement as a successful circulator of reports "false in every particular," of "fabrication," and "slander," of "the *ex-post-facto* manufacture of history." However sensible of the compliment which Mr. Willard pays to my imaginative powers, it would be assuming to allow to go uncontradicted the insinuation that I invented the diverting episode of the secession of Jones County, Mississippi.

Nor have I even the lesser distinction, which seems also to be ascribed to me, necessary to repeat a story and then to refuse to give my authority. One must be a very reckless offender who has not the fear of the *Nation* before his eyes. It is quite true that Mr. Willard "addressed a note, . . . asking for the contemporary authority" for my statement, but as the note, the only one I have ever received, reached me March 21, 1892, when the printed letter must have been already in type, my speedy and sufficiently explicit reply probably did not reach Mr. Willard in time for him to withdraw his letter. To be sure, his note is dated December 14, 1891, and is post-marked, apparently, "Los Angeles, March 14, 1892"; but I am not quite so devoid of humor as to charge a presumably respectable man with a want of good faith for what any one must suppose is a simple accident; nor shall I write to the Postmaster at Los Angeles for information without giving Mr. Willard an opportunity of private explanation. The only persons, therefore, whose character appears to be seriously involved by Mr. Willard's investigation are the "slandered" people of Jones County and Mr. G. Norton Galloway, historian of the Sixth Army Corps. Mr. Galloway published in the *Magazine of American History* for October, 1886, (vol. xvi., pp. 387-390) an article entitled "A

Confederacy within a Confederacy," from which I drew my statement in the *New England Magazine*. To judge from the picturesqueness, humor, and straightforwardness of the article, Mr. Galloway is abundantly able to defend himself, even against the principalities and powers of Mississippi. His account has the ear-marks of truth; and I am so lost to propriety as to believe it still, and to hope that it "will run a long while."

Recent events suggest a delicacy as to delivering anything in the nature of a "professional warning," having any personal bearing: "Those be such desperate bloody-minded weapons." May I venture, however, to lay down four canons for the guidance of the inexperienced who may venture into the paths of historical criticism?

(1.) Never make a statement which you cannot support by good authority, if challenged; it is right to be cautious, it is also convenient.

(2.) Do not too hastily accept the testimony of two persons who never heard of a thing as conclusive against one who has heard of it.

(3.) If a stern sense of justice moves you to expose a fellow-craftsman who is engaged in "the *ex-post-facto* manufacture of history," be sure that your letters of inquiry are not also "ex-post-facto."

(4.) "To Roast a Hare.—First catch your Hare."—Respectfully,

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, March 25, 1892.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE PEOPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No one who, in persistently advocating a cause, has not felt the freezing effect of indifference can appreciate the gratitude I feel to Mr. Garrison for furnishing a point of resistance, or it might be better to say a staff to lean upon.

It is nearly a quarter of a century since I began to urge the importance of giving to the Cabinet officers seats in Congress. The same principle next presented itself with startling force in relation to municipal government. But it is only within a few years—in fact, since the appearance of Mr. Bryce's book—that I have seen that the State governments furnish the most important as well as available point of attack. It is perfectly astounding, as one bores into the subject, to see how obvious and how imperative is the necessity for such a change. There is, however, one thing in the State government which makes the work much more difficult. The Federal administration is organized on a sound principle—one man in every place, and that man appointed in a direct line of subordination, from the President down. All that needs to be done, therefore, at the outset is to make a connection between the Executive and the Legislature. In the States, on the other hand, the heads of departments are elected separately from the Governor, and are wholly independent of him. As administration under these circumstances is impossible, the Legislatures have set up a number of anonymous and irresponsible commissions which really govern the State. This dislocated administration has, therefore, to be got into working order before a responsible Cabinet in the Legislature can be thought of, and the former task is, perhaps, the harder of the two. There is another difficulty common to both the Federal and State governments. The objective point is to strengthen the Executive, and thereby obtain greater personal responsibility. Now, there are two things which by its nature a Legislature does not

want and is thoroughly hostile to: one, strengthening the Executive; and the other, personal responsibility. It is, therefore, quite useless to try, as Mr. Garrison suggests, to get a bill through the Massachusetts or any other Legislature, or through Congress. The work can be done only in one of two ways: (a) by crusaders like William Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips, who shall arouse the people to compel the Legislatures and Congress to do the work; or, (b) by some Governor or President who shall appeal directly to the people on behalf of his office.

Mr. Garrison doubts whether much advantage would be gained. "No system or agency can long keep our politics much above or below the level of our national character, and it is at least a question whether any change in methods or machinery would stimulate the essential elements of the stage of civilization which we have reached." I cannot reply to this better than by a quotation from Macaulay relating to the first Parliament of William III. after the Revolution of 1688:

"But the King of England could do nothing without the House of Commons. And the House of Commons, though it had hitherto supported him zealously and liberally, was not a body on which he could rely. It had, indeed, got into a state which perplexed and alarmed all the most sagacious politicians of that age. There was something appalling in the union of such boundless power with such boundless caprice. The fate of the whole civilized world depended upon the votes of the representatives of the English people, and there was no public man who could say with confidence what the representatives might not be induced to vote within twenty-four hours.

"The truth was that the change which the Revolution had made in the situation of the House of Commons had made another change necessary, and that other change had not as yet taken place. There was Parliamentary Government, but there was no Ministry, and without a Ministry the working of a Parliamentary Government such as ours must always be unsteady and unsafe. It is essential to our liberties that the House of Commons should exercise a control over all departments of the administration. And yet it is evident that a crowd of five or six hundred people, even if they were intellectually much above the average of the members of the best Parliament, even if every one of them were a Burleigh or a Sully, would be unfit for executive functions. It has been truly said that every large collection of human beings, however well educated, has a tendency to become a mob; and a country of which the Supreme Executive Council is a mob is surely in a perilous position."

The remedy in this case was found in an Executive Ministry having seats in the Parliament, and there are few things more interesting in political history, and none more instructive, than the development of this Ministry till it has become in this century the instrument of the greatest peaceful reform, in the interest of the whole people, which this world has ever seen. The whole history of France from 1789 to this hour is that of a struggle to work out this problem of establishing an Executive strong enough to govern, but held responsible to the nation. It is to be feared, notwithstanding the twenty years of the Third Republic, that final success has not been attained. We also in this country have got to work out the same problem, or go to pieces.

G. B.
BOSTON, March 25, 1892.

CHAUCER'S AGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Prof. Lounsbury's excellent monograph on the life of Chaucer ("Studies in Chaucer," i., 32 ff.), certain arguments are advanced against the assumption of 1340 as the birth-

year of the poet. On p. 48 the author remarks that the only way to break the force of references made to Chaucer's old age, both his own laments and the allusions of his contemporaries, is to take the ground "that the average duration of human life in the fourteenth century was so much shorter than in the nineteenth that a man would then be termed old at a much earlier period than now." A quotation to this effect is made from Hampole; and an utterance of Innocent III., two hundred years earlier, is shown to hold the same tenor. Such evidence, however, is condemned by Prof. Lounsbury as mere religious rhetoric, and useless to prove the point. In this opinion we all cheerfully concur. But there is other evidence of a much more convincing character. I do not say that this evidence will dispose of our author's assertion that the individual life was no shorter than now (p. 49); but I feel sure that it will show what fourteenth-century people meant by old age. Jacob Grimm ("Rechtsalterthümer," 416 f.) brings proof, for several Germanic races and for different times, that sixty and often fifty years were regarded as the terminal point of active manhood. From twenty to fifty for men, from fifteen to forty for women, said the West Goths, may be reckoned as active life. Above sixty, ran a German maxim, men were come "beyond their days," or had "arrived at their days." An old German poet, after naming various stages of a life well spent, ends by saying: "How fairly comes one to the fifty years!" Among the Romans, *senectus* began at fifty (see J. Grimm, *über das Alter*, Kl. Schr. i., 190). An old German proverb, quoted in Grimm's essay, says:

"30 Jahr ein Mann,
40 Jahr stille stahn,
50 Jahr geht Alter an."

Such popular wisdom is worth the rhetoric of a thousand sermons; and it shows how easily Chaucer's friends might call him old at fifty, or even a few years earlier. When he calls himself old, we need not take him too seriously: think of Thackeray's "forty year."

It is almost superfluous to add that what I have written applies simply to the use of this particular argument, and not to the conclusions of Prof. Lounsbury in regard to the birth-year of Chaucer.—I am, etc.,

F. B. G.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, March 25, 1892.

"PSYCHOLOGY IN AMERICA."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have lately flattered ourselves on the way in which we teach mathematics in America, and now it seems that we are to do so on the score of our psychology as well. Prof. Cattell, in your issue of March 17, presented things in a very optimistic light, although there are at present not half-a-dozen institutions in the country where courses in scientific psychology are given. The kind of "psychology" generally taught bears as little relation to science as the teachings of the "Metaphysical Medical College" bear to medicine or metaphysics. I have actually found one institution in which the only course in mental science was conducted with Bowne's "Introduction to Psychological Theory" as a text-book. This little-known work is a tirade against the employment of scientific methods in psychology, and was written during an attack of what G. Stanley Hall calls "hylophobia," or "materialism-madness"; and I am sure that the author never dreamed of its being used as a text-book. The experience of many of us will suggest other places where the in-

struction is no better. Prof. Cattell does not do justice to the supporters of the new psychology, himself included. The difficulty of raising the standard in mathematics is comparatively small. In psychology we have to struggle for the first introduction of scientific methods; what this means when it comes to the question of an appropriation for a laboratory can well be conceived. To be sure, President Hall has founded two laboratories, of which the one at Baltimore no longer exists, and Prof. Cattell is to be credited with a like number. But the success achieved by the pioneers ought not to blind us to the fact that by far the large majority of our so-called universities teach a psychology which would call a blush of shame to the face of old Aristotle, the father of the science, for the degeneration of his offspring in the last two thousand years. To attempt to console ourselves by pointing out the entire lack of psychological facilities in England (except in the Cavendish Physiological Laboratory) is like trying to persuade the New Yorkers of the charms of bossism because the Czar of Russia is worse than Hill.

Respectfully, E. W. SCRIPTURE.

WOMEN IN EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "woman question" in Europe is a much more simple thing than in America; the head and front of the offending seems here to be that women desire admission to all the universities. Yet this demand alone is so vital, so pressing, that you should really have a monthly bulletin from all the university centres to note the degrees of progress in opinion and opportunity. The latest event of importance here at the seat of the renowned University of Zürich has been the installation of Dr. Emilie Kempin as privat-docent. This took place to-day at eleven o'clock in the auditorium of the University. Mrs. Kempin is well known in America as a lecturer in the law school of the University of the City of New York. She made her second application for a privat-docentship here last fall and was appointed, though not without opposition from the conservatives. The installation is an affair quite simple enough to suit the undemonstrative Swiss character; it consists of the first public lecture of the privat-docent, to which he (or now she) comes attended by the rector and by members of the special Faculty in which the candidate is to work, as well as also by the gloriously caparisoned verger, and to which the public also are invited. The audience that came to hear Dr. Kempin discourse upon "Modern Trusts" was large, gave close attention, and showed appreciation by hearty applause at the close. I have heard that the students in law were specially pleased, and it is to be hoped that the new privat-docent will have a good number to attend her course in English and American law next semester.

This is the first time that such an honor has been conferred upon a woman in German-speaking countries; and it is especially noteworthy because the University of Zürich is a State institution. But it is the only university where such a thing could be done, because it is the only place where women are officially admitted. Here all doors are officially opened wide to women up to the examination and degrees of doctor of philosophy and doctor of medicine. But where in other universities a woman now and then appears in the lecture-halls, it is always through the personal favor or invitation of individual professors. At Leipzig a larger number of women than else-

where brave public opinion, and, led by their strong desire to hear the lectures of great specialists, ask for permission to attend. They are never molested in any way, but their position is always an ambiguous one.

In Baden a recent movement towards opening the universities of that Grand Duchy to women has awakened a great deal of interest. An exact statement of facts will perhaps account for some of the misapprehensions that have been caused. The "Frauen Verein Reform" of Weimar, under the leadership of Frau Kettler, sent to the Baden Landtag a petition praying for the opening of the universities of Baden and for the founding of a gymnasium for young women. The petition was referred to a commission, and they reported to the Landtag that they were not in favor of opening the universities or of founding a gymnasium for young women, but that young women might take the *Maturitäts* examination at the gymnasiums for boys now existing. As to the attendance of foreign women upon the university lectures, the Commission said that their visit (*der Besuch*) should be exceptional and liable to recall at the will of individual professors; and that such a visit should be allowed to those women of Baden who should have taken the *Maturitäts* examination.

This report was not exactly recommended by the Landtag, but commended to the consideration of the Government. But the representative of the Government in the debate, while declaring that the Government was favorable to the advance of opportunity for women, and would keep further developments of the woman question in mind, still expressed timidity about taking definite steps until other German States showed a disposition to advance also. The stormy opposition, he said, on the part of university professors (presumably at Heidelberg) to opening the doors to women would lead the Government to consider well and go slowly. I am quoting at present from memory of the report of his speech as given in the Baden papers, but I believe I give the main features correctly. That something has been gained by the debate over the matter is clear, but perhaps not so much as has been reported. The Government is to consider the matter, but what its decision will be is uncertain.

The petition of the "Frauen Verein Reform" emphasized the need on the part of women for scientific training, and because of this, perhaps, has gone out the word that scientific and mathematical courses are open. Recent news from Heidelberg leads me to say that there are no women students there. At Freiburg there have been two or three in the past year, but they were working in laboratories only as "guests." The Faculties of both these universities have to this time refused to consider the application of any woman for official recognition.

There has been this year a movement in Austria looking towards the opening of the university at Vienna to women, and the Emperor of Russia has within a few days given permission for the refounding of the medical school for women in St. Petersburg, which has been closed since 1886.

MARTHA FOOTE CROW.
ZURICH, March 4, 1892.

THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in your paper of February 25 entitled "An Interesting Question," and also the letter in your issue of March 10 on "The Education of Southern Youth," I read with

much interest. Permit me to say a few words on the other side of the question. Is it a fact that the young women of this generation are intellectually superior, that is to say, better educated, than the young men? That, as a whole, they are better read in certain branches of literature cannot be denied; and they certainly profit by joining literary societies, which, as a rule, men do not avail themselves of. But the question is, are they better educated?

What is education? Is it not the acquiring of knowledge, irrespective of how it is acquired? The young woman may learn more from the study of books, but the young man who enters into business, whether in a professional branch or otherwise, is undoubtedly receiving valuable information daily. Business is now reduced to a science, and requires study on the part of the young man who would succeed, and experience is constantly thrusting knowledge upon him. His brain is necessarily kept in a state of activity. Is the knowledge thus obtained of less value to him, either as an exercise for the development of the mind or as information worth retaining, than that acquired by the young woman wholly from books? It is obvious that the dearth of men in literary societies is caused by want of time on their part, while this is not usually the case with women, who frequently have much leisure at their command. The man, after an active day's work in his office, requires rest and recreation. He is naturally not inclined to spend his evening in study, although he often uses it to advantage by reading an instructive book of an entertaining order. On the other hand, an evening of study is recreation for the woman, who has had household duties to attend to during greater part of the day. The man's work has been of a higher mental order—generally speaking—than that of the woman.

In reference to small towns and sections of the country removed from the large cities, is it not a noticeable fact that a large majority of the best young men leave and seek the business centres, and on this account the young women, who remain at home, are compelled to admit into their social circles and often to accept as husbands men who are inferior to them intellectually? This has been the case in the observations of the writer here and in the East.

Mr. Jas. G. Holmes may account in part for the superiority of the young women over the young men in the South, but in the North we have not had the same cause, nor do I believe a like effect.

W. W.
MILWAUKEE, March 16, 1892.

A PHILOLOGICAL ANALOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *t*, that in time became affixed to the ending of the second person in Old English, has been explained as a forgotten remnant of the postpositive pronoun. In the second person the pronoun is particularly apt to stand after the verb (questions and commands), and being weak, amalgamated with it; then one of the two fricatives became stopped (Sievers, §201, 6), and *bindes-thu* became *bindestu*; but when *thu* was used before the verb, the *t* still adhered to the latter, hence *thu bindest*, and so *bindesthū*.

Those who have regarded this reasoning as far-fetched, will find it confirmed by a somewhat similar case in colloquial modern English. The hortatory *let us* becoming contracted to *lets*, the *s* has come to be (of course unconsciously) regarded as a part of the word, and is frequently retained, though *us* or some word of

like function be used after it. Thus, "Lets us go over to Jones's," "Lets you and I stay here, and John go down to the river and get the girls."

GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., March 14, 1892.

NAMES FOR CHURCHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On reading your review of the 'Dedication of American Churches' in the issue of March 24, I am impelled to make mention of one more unique than any your reviewer has adverted to. We have in this diocese a church whose dedication is "The Good Samaritan." Is this not the only recorded instance of the dedication of a Christian church to an admittedly fictitious person?—Yours truly,

OBSERVER.

PHILADELPHIA, March 26, 1892.

Notes.

GINN & CO., Boston, have nearly ready 'A Primer of English Verse,' by Prof. Hiram Corson.

The volume next to appear of 'The Poets and Poetry of the Century' (London: Hutchinson & Co.) will be devoted to the women poets. Dr. Garnett is to write of Emily Brontë and others; Mr. J. A. Noble of George Eliot and Mrs. Browning, etc., etc.

'Examples of Early English Pottery,' by J. Eliot Hodgkin and Edith Hodgkin, is now to be had of Bernard Quaritch, London. The work figures and describes upwards of six hundred pieces of pottery, and is put out in an ordinary edition of 500 copies and a large-paper issue of but 50.

Mr. Rudyard Kipling has collected his fugitive verse of the past few years, which, revised and with the addition of some unpublished pieces, will be printed early in April by Macmillan & Co., under the title 'Barrack Room Ballads.' The same house has now ready 'The Soteriology of the New Testament,' by the Rev. Dr. Du Bosc of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn.

An historical novel, 'Columbus and Beatriz,' by Constance Goddard Du Bois, is announced by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. will publish early in April 'Ethical Teachings in Old English Authors,' by Prof. Hunt of Princeton.

The second volume of Rehatsek's translation of Mirkhond's 'General History' is announced by the Oriental Translation Fund agents as now ready for delivery. It contains the Moslem version of Bible stories between Moses and Jesus, as well as biographies of Alexander the Great and certain Persian philosophers and monarchs. Applications for the volume, which is sold at ten shillings, should be addressed to F. F. Arbuthnot, Royal Asiatic Society, No. 22 Albemarle Street, London, W.

The Appletons have ready their 'History of the Centennial Celebration of the Inauguration of George Washington as the First President of the United States,' edited by Clarence W. Bowen. It is a folio of 650 pages, profusely illustrated, and the edition is limited to 1,000 numbered copies.

Rand, McNally & Co. issue a timely map of the Indian and Oklahoma Territories, on the generous scale of twelve miles to the inch, and folded to pocket size.

The Trow Directory Co. send us their 'Co-partnership and Corporation Directory' for 1892 (the fortieth year of issue), which contains a great mass of information of the high-

est value to legal, banking, and commercial houses. Another volume of great, though local, interest, is the 'New York Charities Directory' for 1892, the fifth volume of the kind published by the Charity Organization Society. It should be in the hands of all those who have to do with the relief of the poor and unfortunate, or the reformation of criminals.

The Putnams have done well to include Mr. Louis R. Ehrich's two papers on 'The Question of Silver' in their "Questions of the Day" series. Mr. Ehrich's thorough information and effective power of homely argument have already become widely known.

Fifteen sermons by Theodore Parker, hitherto unpublished, come to us from Roberts Bros., Boston, entitled 'West Roxbury Sermons.' As might be inferred, they do not bear the polemical stamp of his discourses of the later Twenty-eighth Congregational Society days, being, in fact, almost entirely "practical" sermons; yet they have their interest, both intrinsically and as helping to show how the man came to his power.

A collection of contributions to *Garden and Forest* by Mary C. Robbins, makes a lively and pleasant book, 'The Rescue of an Old Place' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Many an amateur gardener will sympathize with the writer's denunciation of that "shameless weaver," the web-worm, and of the rose-bug, desolator of whole counties that he is; nor will he fail to admire the discipline of those shrubs, here described, which grew so accustomed to being dragged out of their holes and set in a new place that they minded moving-day no more than the most peripatetic New Yorker.

Miss Jane E. Harrison's 'Introductory Studies in Greek Art' (Macmillan) does not call for extended notice. As its name implies, it is a handbook, intended principally for beginners; and as its name does not imply, half of it is taken up with a description of the arts which preceded the Greek, namely, Egyptian, Assyrian, and Phoenician. To the last of these is devoted a chapter of no less than seventy-eight pages, much of which might well have been spared in so small a book, especially as the writer's chief purpose is to develop one thought, which finds its culmination in the sculptures of the Parthenon; and the long digression on the history and characteristics of the Phoenicians makes it difficult for the reader to keep the leading motive in mind. The best chapter by far is that on Egyptian art, which is a clear, simple, straightforward statement, undisturbed by those emotional qualities which frequently mar Miss Harrison's style, and admirably successful in bringing out those points which are of most interest to the student who cares for Egyptian art mainly in its relations to the art of Greece. The second half of the book really amounts to a series of four sermons, taking for their texts, respectively, the Metopes of Selinus, Pheidias, the Hermes of Praxiteles, and the Altar of Pergamon. These deal with the moral or ethical aspect of Greek art; and, excellent as are the precepts they enforce, we cannot help feeling that the preacher is rather inclined to take a lurid view of matters, as, for example, when she says that the Marble Faun, in the Capitol, is "doubly satisfactory to some because he is the euphemistic expression of an evil thing."

The steady increase of interest in the art of bookbinding is shown by the constant publication of volumes in which the art is discussed and in which the best specimens are reproduced. It is to be hoped that a full bibliography of bibliopsgy will soon be forthcoming. The latest addition to the list of books on the subject is 'Historic Bindings in the Bodleian

Library, Oxford, with reproductions of Twenty-four of the finest Bindings,' by W. Salt Brassington (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.). Of course, in any work of this character the text is secondary to the illustrations. Mr. Brassington's remarks are judicious: he is learned on the subject, and he has not the absurdly high opinion of British bookbinding held by some of his fellow-countrymen who write about the art. The illustrations are excellent. They are photogravures, colored by hand, and are quite equal to any to be found even in recent French books about bookbinding. Plate 4, for example, reproduces a Latin Psalter bound in silver gilt, partly covered with translucent enamel in various colors—a most difficult specimen to render adequately, and most satisfactorily accomplished. Equally beautiful as reproductions are plates 22 and 23, one a Book of Common Prayer bound in canvas embroidered with colored silks, and the other a Prayer Book and Bible bound in white satin and also embroidered in colored silks. It is in these embroidered bindings and in bindings enriched with metal work and with ivory carvings, that the Bodleian is richest, rather than in the simpler and, at bottom, finer bindings of leather relying on their tooling for their beauty.

Still another batch of unpublished drawings by Thackeray is to see the light. This one is to appear in the April *Greyfriar*, the paper of Charterhouse School, and will relate, fittingly enough, to the artist's school days, from which most of the collection dates.

Poet-Lore makes a spring-moving from Philadelphia to Boston, in the latter of which cities it is hereafter to be published under the same editorship and with the same aims and scope as before. The removal is mainly due, it is announced, to the interest taken in the magazine by Mr. Dana Estes, and to the inducements which he held out to it to make the change.

The February number of Petermann's *Mitteilungen* contains an account, by Th. Thorddæsen, of the first of two journeys into the interior of Iceland for geological research. It is accompanied by a chart. The editor, Dr. Supan, gives the results of the deep-sea explorations during the years 1888-'90. From the chart on which are drawn the routes of the different vessels, with the soundings in metres, the *Albatross*, U. S. N., seems to have surpassed all others in the extent of its surveys, having gone from Cape Horn to Bering's Straits and taken soundings the whole length of the North American and a considerable part of the South American coast. No greater depths have been found than those previously discovered, namely, 8,515 metres in the North Pacific, and 8,341 metres in the Atlantic just to the north of Porto Rico. A supplemental number contains an orographic description of the Atlas Mountains of Morocco, by Dr. Paul Schnell, mostly compiled from the reports of recent travellers.

The small trades of the Caucasus are the subject of an article by Victor Dingelstedt, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March. The country has great natural resources, as yet undeveloped, the principal occupations of all the inhabitants, both villagers and townspeople, with the exception of merchants and officials, being to cultivate the soil, breed cattle, and rear horses. They supplement these occupations by a number of petty home industries which are described in detail. The writer's information was obtained from the reports of the various schoolmasters throughout the country to the Superintendent of Public Instruction, published by him last year in Tiflis. All their appliances are very simple, the work be-

ing done in their huts and tents, or in the fields and streets, while the profit is, in nearly every case, ludicrously small. Every Tartar household has a loom on which carpets, saddle-bags, and other woolen goods are woven by the women. After this the most important industry is the rearing of silkworms, which are "known as Jobs' worms, an ancient tradition relating that the worms which attacked the patriarch were transformed into silkworms as a reward for his patience under suffering." "The eggs are hatched by the women in the hollow of their armpits." Recently silk-mills after European models have been introduced, in which "a working-day is from fourteen to sixteen hours," with wages ranging from twelve to eighteen cents a day. Other trades are tanning and fur-dressing, embroidery, pottery, and basket-making, and the manufacture of arms. The last art is declining, "many famous armorers, who knew how to produce a weapon capable of cutting in two an iron bar of 0.3 inches diameter, having carried their secrets with them to the grave." A short account of "The Mapping of the United States" is given by Mr. Henry Gannett, chief topographer of our Geological Survey. From this it appears that "an area of 50,000 to 60,000 square miles is surveyed annually, and the entire area thus far surveyed is about 650,000 square miles, the area of the United States being about 3,600,000 square miles."

An interesting account of a journey in northern Korea by Mr. Charles W. Campbell opens the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The principal object of the expedition—to explore the famous White Mountain in Manchuria—was unfortunately not attained on account of the lateness of the season, but a large part of the way to and from this place was through a region never before visited by a European. Much of the scenery was fine, the agricultural villages being picturesque in appearance and situation. The soil, though very fertile and capable of bearing two crops a year, is cultivated in a slovenly way, very unlike that of the more thrifty Japanese and Chinese. Gold is very extensively found, but not as yet in large quantities, "placer" mining being resorted to by the natives only when the ground is too sterile for profitable cultivation. The White Mountain is surrounded by a great forest, the resort of the sable-hunters and the gatherers of the ginseng. When one of these valuable roots is found, a clearing is made in the forest about it by the finders and it is left to grow, perhaps for a year or two, and the men who found it are perfectly certain that it will not be stolen. The sole authority recognized in the forest region is that of the guilds of the hunters of sable and ginseng, formed for their mutual protection.

Statistics of present-day publications in the Welsh language are furnished by Mr. Gwynfe Evans in a late number of the *Welsh Review*, which will give most readers a new idea of the persistent vitality of Welsh. He enumerates seventeen weekly papers published in 1887, besides several monthly, bi-monthly, and quarterly magazines, one of which has a circulation of 37,760. There was also a regular output of books, from a pamphlet to the ten-volume 'Gwydoniadur.' A Welsh-English Dictionary is now in course of publication on such a scale that the first volume of four hundred quarto pages covers but one letter of the alphabet. A leading Welsh firm of publishers estimates the total annual value of publications of all kinds in Welsh at more than £200,000.

Dr. Gill, Astronomer Royal at Cape Town,

has urged upon the Admiralty the necessity of establishing a magnetic observatory there, and the Committee of the British Association appointed for the purpose of reporting on the best means of comparing and calculating observations on terrestrial magnetism, strongly favor the recommendation. The importance of systematic record of the magnetic elements in that part of the world, and of thorough study and discussion of the results, is so great that it is to be hoped that the Admiralty may see fit to furnish a suitable equipment and provide for its proper use and maintenance. Researches in cosmical physics and the ends of navigation will alike be fostered by the early execution of this plan. The necessity of delicate apparatus and careful manipulation is such that astronomers are well fitted for this work by their previous training. The most successful magnetic observatories of the world are those which are connected with astronomical observatories. That isolation which is necessary for the best location of an astronomical observatory is no less imperative for the stability of the foundations which carry instruments for work in practical magnetism.

We have received from Tokio, Japan, a copy of a handsome zylographed life-size picture of Commodore Matthew C. Perry. On the broadside of white Japanese paper, five feet by two in size, is also printed an autograph poem written by the famous scholar Sakuma Shozan. This man in 1853, and for two decades previously, was a student of the Dutch language and literature, and by his writings and eloquence did much to change the opinions of his countrymen in favor of western civilization. He was assassinated in Kioto, August 12, 1864, while riding a horse caparisoned with a foreign saddle and bridle, but his principles survived his life. In the imperial proclamation issued on the day the new Constitution was given to the people, February 11, 1889, the name of Sakuma Shozan was covered with honor, because he had, as early as 1841, advocated representative government. The zylographic picture is a good specimen of popular art, and the likeness is photographically accurate and full of expression. At the top are the seals, autograph, and original title of commendation bestowed on Perry, as being "well-disposed to benevolence and friendly to neighbors," written by the late premier, Sanjo Saneyoshi. The prose and thirty-one-syllable stanza may be translated as follows:

"In the Land of the Morning, whither I went, aiming to reach the Eastern capital, many days passed while the ships lay at anchor in a place called the harbor of Yokohama in Musashi. One day, in order to beguile the tedium of the time, we gathered on board ship, and held a feast. After sunset, the moon rose resplendent. In playful mood, I sang this stanza:

On Musashi's bright sea
The rising moon
In California
Makes setting gloom.

Taira Hiraka [literary name, Sakuma Shozan] composed this for pastime, in the place of the American envoy."

The nineteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction is to be held at Denver, June 23-29. The Executive Committee announce a provisional programme, and promise a second announcement early in May, in which will also appear the arrangements made to secure reduced rates of railroad fare and hotel accommodations.

The growth of Minneapolis is shown in a nut-shell as we compare the census of 1880 with that of 1890. The twenty foremost cities of the country at the former date remained still

foremost at the latter, except that Minneapolis had come among them, Providence having fallen out. Minneapolis, standing now No. 18 among our cities, had not only passed by Providence, which had been No. 20, but also outwelt Jersey City, whose standing in 1890 was No. 19. At the beginning of the last decade it seemed unlikely that Minneapolis could soon, if indeed ever, rank in the most populous score of our cities. As its number in 1880 was 38, seventeen competitors were ahead of it in the populational race, before it could reach the threshold of the foremost score. In 1880 the inhabitants of Minneapolis were 46,887, while of the seventeen cities with which she was to compete, all but two showed a census of over 50,000, six of over 60,000, and one of over 90,000. All the seventeen have also at the close of the decade shown a fair, and some of them a phenomenal, percentage of increase. Some of them, accordingly, have risen in rank, but most have fallen. Four rose in relative standing, namely, Kansas City from No. 30 to No. 24, Syracuse from No. 32 to No. 31, Columbus from No. 33 to No. 30, and Toledo from No. 35 to No. 33. One only of the seventeen, Rochester, retained the same rank, No. 22, at the end of the decade as at the beginning. Of the twelve competitors which meantime declined, one, namely, Paterson, fell from No. 34 to No. 36. The position of two cities was lower by three each—Indianapolis falling from No. 24 to No. 27, and Fall River from No. 37 to No. 40. Worcester sunk from No. 28 to No. 32, Alleghany from No. 23 to No. 28, and Albany from No. 21 to No. 29. Still greater was the relative decline of the remaining six, Richmond and New Haven each falling off nine numbers, from No. 25 to No. 34, and from No. 26 to No. 35, while Lowell and Cambridge stood No. 37 and No. 41 in 1890, instead of No. 27 and No. 31 in 1880, and the numbers of Troy and Charleston went down respectively from No. 29 to No. 46, and from No. 36 to No. 53. The percentage of increment during the decade at Minneapolis was 251.35; the largest in any of the competing cities was 137.91, at Kansas City. All but four of the eighteen cities distanced by Minneapolis in populational advance are situated on the Atlantic slope.

—Some years ago Prof. Karl Hegel of the University of Erlangen published a work entitled 'Geschichte der Städteverfassung in Italien,' in which he showed, first, the influence exerted by the cities of the Roman provinces, and especially of Italy, in assimilating the hordes of German conquerors and the more numerous conquered population, and, secondly, the changes produced in the organization and evolution of the cities themselves through the introduction of Germanic institutions. The same scholar has recently issued another work, 'Städte und Gilden der Germanischen Völker im Mittelalter' (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot), which forms a proper sequel to the preceding one, tracing as it does the later development of cities among the Germanic nations, and their corporate and industrial character as affected by the rise and growth of guilds. The Frankish guilds were put under ban by the Church and prohibited by the State as strongholds of paganism. In the capitulary of 779, Charlemagne characterizes the *gildoniæ* as conspiracies, and in a later edict accuses them of fostering drunkenness. As pagan sacrificial rites were more or less festive and convivial, they readily degenerated, with the decline of the ancient cult, into banqueting and drinking-bouts. The first volume contains a history of guilds in the principal

cities of England, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway; the second volume embraces the towns of northern France, Normandy, Flanders, Brabant, the Netherlands, and northern Germany. In connection with each of these sections the author gives the literature of the subject, and expresses his great indebtedness, so far as England is concerned, to the researches of Mr. Toulmin Smith.

The celebration of the centenary of Franz Bopp's birth on September 14, 1891, was the occasion of many warm expressions of personal esteem and scholarly appreciations of his labors as a pioneer in the province of comparative philology. Of the latter class of works the most important is Dr. Lefmann's 'Franz Bopp, sein Leben und seine Wissenschaft,' of which the first volume has been published by Reimer in Berlin. A little more than half of it is devoted to the biographical narration; the rest consists of an appendix containing Bopp's correspondence with Karl Joseph Windischmann and other scholars, and his reports sent from time to time to the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, from which he received a yearly stipend of a thousand florins while pursuing his studies in Paris and London from 1812 to 1820. This collection of papers, which have never before been printed, is exceedingly interesting, and alone enables the reader to follow the young Orientalist's career step by step through his severe and often disheartening struggles until the earnest efforts of William and Alexander von Humboldt secured his appointment to a professorship in the University of Berlin in September, 1821. It is curious to note how even the philologists of that day failed to appreciate the importance of Sanskrit. In 1820, fifteen years after Colebrooke's 'Grammar of the Sanskrit Language' and essays 'On the Vedas,' and four years after Bopp's 'Conjugationssystem der Sanskritsprache' had appeared, Silvestre de Sacy wrote to the latter that the relations of this tongue to classical or theological studies were not sufficiently intimate and immediate ever to make it obligatory in the course of instruction, and gave him the following advice: "While continuing to cultivate Sanskrit for your own satisfaction and that of the learned world, you ought absolutely to render your talents more directly useful to the youth of your country by teaching Arabic." In the same year Bopp wished to be made professor of Sanskrit at Würzburg, but the University refused his request on the ground that Sanskrit was a "mere literary luxury." "These erudite professors" are characterized by Bopp in a letter to Schlegel in August, 1820, as men who "wish to teach only what supplies the cupboard with bread; and what they do not know, others should not have an opportunity of learning." Although Bopp spent some time in London, he does not seem to have formed any close friendships or cordial relations with Englishmen, whom he deemed extremely conventional and unapproachable. "I have not found a single foreigner," he writes, "who likes it in England."

A translation of the 'Iliad' of Homer by Mr. John Purves, M.A., late Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford (London: Percival & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is a work of great merit, which makes its appearance under some disadvantages. The translator *feels* his author and is carried on by his inspiration; he makes the reader feel it, too. In this respect the rendering has something of Chapman's quality; its prose has also, more definitely than Leaf and Lang's translation, the quality of sustained and consistent style. It moves more

easily than theirs, is more articulate and less verbose. The paragraphs are sustained and vigorous, mounting successfully towards the music and eloquence of the finer passages in the original. In details it would be easy to find fault. One lights occasionally on odd or affected words which do not harmonize with the generally easy and straightforward diction—"pinnated ships," "slaughterous Hector," "mishandlement," "all to-burst," "bronzen spear," "Troyland." "Green fear" is very strange; within a few hundred lines the word *σαυπόνες* is successively represented by *madcap*, *headstrong*, and *faint spirit*. In this special instance, the variety of phrase is rather a happy expedient, for the epithet is a chameleon that takes its color from the person addressed and the circumstances; in many other cases, more consistency ought to have been maintained. It is superfluous, however, to criticise in detail a production which was never revised as a whole by the author, although it was the chief literary work of his life. If he had finally reviewed it, some of the oddities we have cited might still have remained, while others would undoubtedly have disappeared. The total effect would have been much the same—a performance which justifies the pains of the editor, Mr. Evelyn Abbott, and which, though in some sense a broken column, deserves to stand beside the finished achievement of such scholars as Leaf and Lang and Butcher. The introduction, by Dr. Abbott, presents a very clear and fair summary of the incidents in the poem which have been cited for and against the unity and continuity of the 'Iliad.' It is interesting to note, *apropos* of Mr. Palmer's 'Odyssey,' that one of the chief liberties the editor permitted himself was the transforming or rearranging an occasional passage in which Mr. Purves had "declined and fallen" into blank verse.

—Mr. E. B. England's 'Iphigeneia at Aulis' (Macmillan), without claiming original views as to the state of the text and its history, is nevertheless a work of painstaking and independent scholarship, which, in addition to a full body of notes, presents a detailed statement and comparison of the readings of the principal MSS., accompanied by many original suggestions and emendations. It is, on the whole, a valuable contribution towards the elucidation of a play which, notwithstanding all the mutilations and interpolations it has undergone, remains still powerful and impressive, replete with genius and with beauty. It has, besides, the fascination for scholars of offering many insoluble problems and many passages as to which each new editor will have his opinion and his reason. In discussing these subjective questions, Mr. England shows good sense and good taste, and his reason is generally quite as good as another's. His conclusion, in the main, is, "that the play was left by Euripides in too unfinished a state to be put on the stage; that the man or men who prepared it for such representation not only added passages at the end and in the body of the play, but rearranged the prologue; and, lastly, that of small casual interpolations of later date the text of this tragedy contains an exceptionally large share." As to the character of the heroine, Mr. England remarks rather strikingly, that if, as some have believed, the 'Bacchae' was Euripides' recantation of the heresies of former plays, his picture of *Iphigeneia* is the palinode in which he *stones* for earlier imputations on the sex.

—The Chairman of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at

Athens has received from the Director, Dr. Charles Waldstein, under date of Athens, March 6, the following informal report with regard to the important excavations of the School at the Heraeum, near Argos:

"At the Heraeum we have been successful beyond all hopes. We are clearing the whole site of the second temple, cutting far into the hill below. The whole foundation will be clearly visible now (there having been nothing to see before). We have done enough digging on the surrounding sites to discover the interesting foundations of the first temple (even with the remains of the charred wood of the superstructure, burnt in 429 B. C.), and have found a stoa and other interesting buildings on the lowest terrace. The harvest of ancient pottery of the earliest periods, terracottas, and bronzes, is perhaps the richest yet made in these regions, including Mycenæ, and I do not doubt will have the most important bearings upon the early history of art and ritual—a subject much under discussion at the present moment. We have also discovered many beautiful pieces of the architectural decoration of the second temple, and I trust we shall be able to make a restoration of it. Last, but not least, we have found most interesting pieces of sculpture, among them three well-preserved heads—one of them, I believe, the most perfect specimen of the art of the fifth century B. C. to be found in any extant head. The numerous other marble fragments will become the more valuable the further the excavation goes. I trust that we are just now at a point where further finds may be made. At the end of this or next week, the work at the second temple will come to a point where we can well stop for this year; we shall continue our work next year at the other portions of this excellent site. The Greek authorities, who have visited us while excavating, approve highly of our method of working. We are digging on a large scale, which the liberal contribution of the Archeological Institute of America enables us to do, and the form of excavation has proved advantageous to the scientific aspects of the work. We have employed on most days (fortunately no rain and no holidays) from 150 to 180 workmen, and 20 to 30 carts with horses. Four students have been with me. I shall have a cast of the beautiful head taken at once, and shall send the mould to you, that casts may be made in America and forwarded from there. I have also made arrangements for good photographs, and shall have a set of selected specimens issued in phototype, as a preliminary publication, and shall add a short explanatory text. At Sparta this year I mean only to make excavations on one site in the city which belongs to the Government, and perhaps some trial excavations on the most promising private sites, leaving the chief work for next year."

—The Greek Government has granted to the American School at Athens the permission to carry on excavations in the province of Laconia, and particularly in the vicinity of ancient Sparta and of Amyclæ. The conditions are similar to those made with the German Government for the excavations at Olympia, and with the French Government relative to those at Delphi. The permission is granted for a period of seven years. The School is allowed to take moulds and casts of the antiquities discovered, and to be the first to publish the results of the excavations and of the discoveries thereby made. The Greek Government certainly seems desirous to afford the School as good a recompense as possible for the loss of the opportunity of conducting excavations at Delphi, and the American School is taking an exceedingly honorable part in archaeological work in Greece. During the last half-dozen years, the School (as the readers of the *Nation* may remember) has dug at Thoricus, Sicyon, Icaria, Platea, Eretria, and the Heraeum, besides slighter work at two or three less important places—determining the site of an ancient deme, bringing to light much material for the history of the Greek drama and its theatre, finding what may be the grave of the philosopher Aristotle, some fine pieces of ancient sculpture, etc., etc.

CARSON'S SUPREME COURT.—I.

The Supreme Court of the United States: Its History. By Hampton L. Carson of the Philadelphia Bar. And its Centennial Celebration February 4, 1890, prepared under direction of the Judiciary Centennial Committee. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co. 1891.

THIS book is a magnificent tribute to a great tribunal. A ponderous, unwieldy volume for working purposes—a folio in form, 12x9 inches on the cover and 3 inches in thickness, containing 761 pages of heavy paper, and 53 cardboard illustrations—it is nevertheless a work which every owner of a good library will recognize as well entitled to shelf-room and exceptionally in keeping with its subject. About 600 pages are the work of Mr. Carson, the remaining 150 containing the account of the centennial anniversary, and the addresses which were then delivered. The two parts are not unfitly joined together in one book, for the work of Mr. Carson comes down to the centennial, and is a combination of judicial history, biography, and album (in its fifty-three portraits of the judges), while the addresses then delivered, especially those of Mr. Butler, Mr. Hitchcock, and Mr. Semmes, are the incisive commentaries of able and accomplished lawyers, and well worthy of preservation in an accessible and lasting form. The two parts thus united give a certain majesty of proportion to the whole, and they have one element in common—panegyric.

Panegyric is not unhealthy reading for the citizens of a republic when it is given to that branch of the Government which depends upon the Executive for its material, and the Legislature for its jurisdiction, and whose office is frequently to repress and never to excite the political or popular movements of the day. The future President of the United States who studies this book while a young man will give the country better judges for having read it; the future judge will deem it all the more incumbent to live up to the ideal standard that has been ascribed to his office; the good citizen will curb his personal opinion, and be more than ever a law-abiding American, bowing to the court of last resort as if infallibility were an attribute of exalted judicial station. As we pass over Mr. Carson's chronological review of the statutes defining jurisdiction, of the personnel of the Court, of its decisions, of the support it needed but did not receive, of the opposition it encountered but overcame, of the low estimate put upon it by its earlier members—Harrison declining his commission in 1782 to accept the Chancellorship of Maryland; Rutledge leaving its bench in 1791 to become Chief Justice of South Carolina; Jay surrendering the all-important office of Chief Justice of the United States because he had been elected Governor of New York—until at last we reach the glowing commemoration of its century, we are more than ever before impressed with the significant fact that the branch of our Government which has neither power nor patronage, which appeals most to the judgment and least to the imagination, and which has been assailed more by the public press than it has been extolled, is the one which has grown most in real strength, in the high opinion of foreign observers, in the hope and reliance of thinking men, and in the esteem and confidence of the great mass of good citizens.

When we observe the reverence which is now rendered to the Court, and listen to the volume of laudation that is poured out on its wisdom past and present, it seems indeed well-nigh incredible that this respect is a growth and not an inheritance. The young lawyer of the pre-

sent day can hardly believe that when the Supreme Court, during its first decade, rendered judgment against the State of Georgia, the Legislature immediately enacted that if any person should attempt to execute the process of the Court within the State, he should suffer death; or that when the Court, during its second decade, issued a peremptory mandamus to the United States district judge in Pennsylvania commanding him, by proper process, to enforce a judgment of his court, the Governor called out the militia to resist the execution of the writ. But passing these by as occurring in the infancy of the Court (the latter in 1809, within twenty years from its organization), we come, in 1832, to the case of *Worcester v. The State of Georgia*. The Supreme Court was then approaching the end of its first half century. Marshall had become venerable as well as great, and was within three years of the end of his illustrious service. Yet even then the Governor of Georgia defied the authority of the Court, and the general Government made no attempt to enforce its decree. A more just and righteous decision, moreover, was never made by a court.

Samuel A. Worcester, a citizen of Vermont who had entered the country of the Cherokee nation "in the capacity of a duly authorized missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, under the authority of the President of the United States," was "engaged in preaching the Gospel to the Cherokee Indians and in translating the sacred Scriptures into their language, with the permission and approval of the said Cherokee nation." For so doing he was arrested, tried, and convicted under a Georgia statute, and the State court sentenced him to "hard labor in the penitentiary for the term of four years." The decision of the Supreme Court of course was, that "the law of Georgia, which subjected to punishment all white persons residing within the limits of the Cherokee nation, and authorized their arrest within those limits, and their forcible removal therefrom, and their trial in a court of the State, was repugnant to the Constitution, treaties, and laws of the United States, and void." Yet the Governor of Georgia declared that he would hang the missionary before he would give him up, and the missionary accordingly continued for eighteen months at hard labor in the penitentiary after his imprisonment had been declared unconstitutional and void. When we contrast the masterly opinion of the Chief Justice in this case, its temperate statement, its scrupulous fairness, its unerring analysis and unanswerable demonstration, with the savagery that resisted the mandate of the Court, and set itself against Christianity, humanity, and civilization as well, we may well wonder that such incongruous elements could have existed in the same Government at the same time, and congratulate ourselves that the growth of the Supreme Court in popular esteem during these two generations has not been because the tribunal has grown greater, stronger, wiser, or more just or learned, but because the nation has grown in intelligence, humanity, civilization, and all those things that make for righteousness.

The dangers that beset the Supreme Court in the first decade of its second century are of another kind. Panegyric may do something towards giving the nation better courts, and making the people better citizens, but there its services cease. The Supreme Court is no longer subjected to factious opposition, but it is exempt from healthy criticism. At the present time there is a great deal more adulation poured

upon it than is good for any tribunal. And much of this adulation comes in a personal form, which is not good for any man, and especially not for those who hold the final balances of human judgment. During the last twenty years the American capital, like the capitals of Europe, has become the resort of wealth and fashion. Its beautiful avenues and matchless pavements, and temperate winter climate, and picturesque environs, are magnets which draw the rich and idle, the pleasure-seeking society of the country, from every quarter of our wide domain. Hitherto in our Anglo-Saxon system, with the judiciary as with the clergy, something different and better has been expected in their lives than in the lives of other public men. There have been roysterers judges as there have been roysterers bishops; but the good sense and good taste of two nations have never approved of them. If a man will be a judge or a clergyman, we expect not merely that he will keep out of the penitentiary, but that he will keep out of bad influences. When we commit our things temporal or our things spiritual to a man, we instinctively rely upon his living a life not merely moral, but above suspicion, and especially above the suspicion of inferior surroundings. The unhappy Cabinet officer (a brave soldier, in private life an honorable gentleman) who a few years ago was dragged before the country and the Court of Impeachment, owed his fall to the same influences that now surround every member of the Supreme Court. There was also, it will be remembered, another Cabinet officer about the same time, who bought a fashionable landau which appeared on the inventory of the department as his official wagon, but which in fact was his wife's carriage, the wife, too, being a partner of the Washington ring. None of these reproaches have fallen on the Supreme Court, but two of its members—it is not too much to say its most respected members—have died leaving wives and daughters in comparative penury, their private fortunes dissipated and their official salaries spent in keeping up a style of living beyond their means, but supposed to be required by their official station.

By a most unhappy chance the families of our highest court have drifted into the stream of blended political and fashionable life in Washington, and become a part of it. People in political life think they must do, and are permitted to do, both in England and America, many things that would not be tolerated in private life. The Duchess of Devonshire might let a butcher kiss her to secure the re-election of Mr. Fox; our high political officers may open their houses in sham hospitality, and let their wives shake hands with anybody and everybody who chooses to walk into their private residences. This is deemed a political requirement, a thing that must go on while the office is held, but which would be deemed vulgar and ridiculous after the family returns to private life. By some unaccountable confusion of ideas, the families of the Supreme Court have supposed that they are political personages, and have led the same kind of semi-public life, though of all the families in the country they are the ones who ought to maintain a dignified reserve, and be inaccessible to every unknown adventurer who desires to make their acquaintance. How absolutely absurd it would seem in New York or London, every time an eminent lawyer was raised to the bench after living a quiet, sensible, retired life, for the world of fashion to rush to his door and leave cards, and make him and his wife prominent figures in society. Moreover, people at summer re-

sorts or winter resorts are not as careful about the persons they meet as when living in their own homes; and in Washington society there is a large political element which shuns unprofitable inquiries. Shady characters walk on the sunny side of the street. Not many years have passed since the notorious "king of the lobby" caught four or five judges by simply baiting his hook with the late Lord Houghton, and caught Lord Houghton by baiting his other hook with the Honorable the Justices of the Supreme Court. And as we write, the Washington correspondents inform the world that one, if not more of the judges, was a guest at a dinner given by one of the "Big Four" of Tammany to the most unscrupulous and notorious politician of the time, and this immediately after his infamous attempts to use and degrade the judiciary of this State. In Washington society public men seem to hang on their front doors a placard, "All invitations accepted, and no questions asked." This kind of thing is not compatible with either hard work, serene thought, or exalted character, and the sooner public opinion requires that it shall stop, the better it will be for the Court, for the judges, and for their wives and children. The Supreme Court, we believe, is the only court in England or America to which this vulgar publicity has been attached, or which has descended into these exceedingly questionable currents of political and society life.

Chief-Justice Cooley has said, in his "Constitutional History of the United States," and Mr. Carson reiterates that opinion, that "the real importance of the Supreme Court was never greater than at first"; and that "the judges who occupied the bench before the time of Marshall are entitled to have it said of them that what they did was of incalculable value to representative institutions." Nevertheless, the more we turn over these pages, the more it becomes apparent that the commoner view—the instinctive verdict of the American mind—is the right one, and that the Supreme Court owes its present strength and greatness to one incomparable cause, which was the presence of Marshall upon its bench. If at the beginning of this century there was one man in the world whose opinion of the Supreme Court as it then stood, both in common estimation and public usefulness, cannot be questioned, that man of course was John Jay. He had been Chief Justice; he had been selected by Washington in conformity with his "best judgment," and by Adams as being in his opinion "the greatest mass of worth" "collected in one individual." His opinion was not given in a moment of irritation, or when it can be supposed to have been tinged by a sense of personal disappointment, for it was written at the time of his receiving the highest compliment that has ever been paid to an American lawyer—that of being a second time nominated and confirmed as Chief Justice of the United States. What was that opinion? "I left the bench," he wrote to the President as he returned the second commission, "perfectly convinced that under a system so defective it would not obtain the energy, weight, and dignity which were essential to its affording due support to the national Government; nor acquire the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess." In the same month that this letter was written, January, 1801, Marshall was commissioned as Chief Justice. In less than five weeks he administered the oath of office to the new President, the most inveterate enemy of the Supreme Court among our public men, and beheld the beginning of

an intense political revolution whose leaders were bent on the destruction of at least a part of the Federal judiciary, and ready to overthrow the Supreme Court itself by an amendment to the Constitution. For thirty-three years, with one brief interval (the Administration of the second Adams), he had opposing him on every national question a combination which would have overcome a dozen ordinary men—the Legislature, the Executive, the appointing power, the local violence of half-rebellious States. The first President of his official life denounced the Supreme Court as "the subtle corps of sappers and miners," "the reprobated system," "the canker" which should be exterminated "before its venom has reached so much of the body politic as to get beyond control"; and, by a legislative artifice, virtually suspended the functions of the Court for fourteen months. Yet here it should be noted, before Jefferson had been two years in office (February, 1803), came the great decision in *Marbury v. Madison*—the boldest, strongest, highest assertion of the rights of the American citizen that has ever come from that Court, which subjects the acts of ministerial and administrative officers to judicial remedies, and declares that this is "a government of laws and not of men." The second President of Marshall's official life placed on the bench a young man, thirty-two years of age, but of extraordinary ability and learning, for the purpose of contesting the authority of the Chief Justice. But Story yielded to the greater mind beside him, and it must have brought bitterness and confusion to the souls of Jefferson and Madison when, five years later, he delivered the opinion in *Martin v. Hunter* (1816), upholding the constitutionality of the Judiciary Act, subordinating the State courts to the Federal judiciary on constitutional questions, and overruling the decision of the Virginia Court of Appeals. This opinion of Story Mr. Henry Adams rightly pronounces one of Marshall's "greatest triumphs." The last President of Marshall's time appointed Henry Baldwin of Pennsylvania (1829) to doggedly dissent from substantially every constitutional principle which the Supreme Court had established during the preceding forty years, and rounded out the adverse circumstances which encircled the noble career of the Chief Justice by leaving the mandate of the Court unenforced and contemptuously saying of what was substantially his last constitutional decision, "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him execute it."

It was during this stormy, adverse period of thirty-four years that Chief-Justice Marshall accomplished what had been deemed impossible—the task of imparting to "the defective system" "the energy, weight, and dignity that were essential to its affording due support to the national Government," and of acquiring for it "the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess." It is true that the virtues, ability, and patriotism of Chief-Justice Jay cannot be over-esteemed, and that when he wrote the letter we have quoted, he had heroically wrecked his health and personal popularity in harassing diplomatic service; but nevertheless Marshall, tried by an adversity such as never vexed a judicial soul, went steadfastly forward, with a calmness, dignity, uprightness, and intellectual majesty that are unapproachable in all the judicial annals of the world.

It is also, we think, incontrovertible that a tone of moderation and sound sense came with Chief-Justice Marshall upon the bench. One secret of the reverence in which he is held is,

that the Court for the next quarter of a century made no mistakes and took no backward steps. It was not so prior to 1801. Brief as was the time, and few as were the decisions, the Court made serious mistakes. In its conscientious upholding of the Federal principle, it went too far and decided too much. The ground taken that there was a common-law jurisdiction of the United States in criminal cases had to be abandoned; and certainly a more unfortunate decision than that in *Chisholm v. the State of Georgia* was never made. Mr. Carson calls it "the first clear trumpet-note which had been sounded by the new nation, in striking contrast with the feeble wail against State power uttered by the Committee of the Continental Congress." Brave enough it undoubtedly was, but disastrous in its consequences. It divided the Supreme Court upon a question of constitutional authority and State sovereignty, at the beginning of its work, when it was vital that it should move with caution and with unanimity. It violated the pledge of the *Federalist* that suits could not be brought against States without their consent; that that objection to the Constitution was without "a color of foundation." It set at naught the assurance of Marshall in the Virginia Convention, when he was struggling to secure the adoption of the Constitution: "It is not rational to suppose that the sovereign power [of a State] shall be dragged before a court." It called out the powerful dissent of Iredell, which furnished a quasi-judicial foundation for the State-right doctrines of the next thirty years. It was not essential to the integrity of the national Government, but aroused and united all the opponents of a Federal power, and awakened distrust where there had been none before. And, finally, it brought down on the Federal principle the reaction of defeat, for the decision was substantially reversed two days after it was announced, by the introduction into Congress of the Eleventh Amendment.

Looking at the opinions of the majority of the Court, now that time has clarified our views of the Constitution, we see that they are able and conscientious and thoroughly moral arguments for a legislative assembly or a constitutional convention, but that they are not judicial. The fallacy which runs through them is, that a grant of jurisdiction to a court creates a liability to process on the part of every one who may be a suitor. "To controversies to which the United States shall be a party," "To controversies between a State and citizens of another State," are constitutional provisions of no distinguishable difference. No one dreamed that the national Government was amenable to the process of a court under the former; yet it was under the latter that the Supreme Court maintained that a State could be sued whether it would or not, and its appearance in court be enforced by process. Sovereign rights were the real objects for which the people of "these colonies" had gone to war; a real sovereignty had been attained by the war; it seemed to them incredible that it could have been surrendered by an ambiguous phrase in an article which related to the judiciary and not to the States. Assuredly, it was an unfortunate decision.

RECENT POETRY.

GOETHE said of English poets that the least of them had yet Shakspere at his back and the ocean at his feet. It is true, however, that it is easy, even for a poet, to ignore what is directly behind him; and easier to emulate the

vague distances of the sea than its measure and its rhythm. Hence the multitude of new volumes of poetry that come from London are as ineffectual, perhaps, as the multitude proceeding from New York; while those that come, in increasing numbers, from our far-off inland cities have almost always some local coloring and hence some value, although this is often to be found in the obscurest corners of the book. Of recent English volumes, the most thoughtful by far is one bearing the somewhat enigmatical title, 'One in the Infinite' (Longmans), the author being George Francis Savage-Armstrong, whose agreeable earlier book, 'A Garland from Greece,' was noticed with cordial enjoyment in these pages some years ago. This present book records the not uncommon theme of a soul first struggling with doubt and depression, but coming by degrees to hope and faith. The theme is old, but the force and freshness of the treatment are new; the doubts are real doubts, the joys are actual triumph, and it is saying little for the book to say that if read and digested faithfully, it is worth several alcoves full of controversial treatises and sermons. Even in the treatment of the ethnic religions, the author has a zest and an originality, as in the following (p. 66):

THE MENDICANT.

1.

Sakya-Muni, Gautama Buddha, what dost thou proffer of hope or of mirth?
"What shall I do to be saved" from the sorrow, passion, and terror, and madness, of earth?
What is thy gospel, O prophet of India? What hast thou left to me, child of the sun?
What is the balm for my pain thou hast promised me?
What is the crown when the race hath been run?

2.

"What shall I do to be saved?"—Thou hast answered it. "Labour not ever, but beg for thy bread; Live as a Mendicant; marry not; mortify flesh; let a life of Nirvana be led.
So shalt thou find in the death of thy passions, growth of thy spirit, composure and rest, Passing through indolent days of humanity on to intangible joys of the blest."

3.

Sakya-Muni, Gautama Buddha, bending I heed thee, but find in thy law Something that baffles me, doubtful consistency,— Lo, in the weft of thy wisdom a flaw!— Look to it, Gautama!—Sakya-Muni, sweet is the bulbul, but hollow her song.
How shall thy gospel suffice for the Many?—If all men are Beggars, from whom shall men beg?

And here we have him again, at his tenderest phase, not in the final triumph, but when the light is breaking (p. 287):

THE FATHER.

1.

If it were only a dream, Were it not good to cherish, Seizing to live but once, Is in despair to perish— Maker and Father and Friend, Yearning in pity to guide me, Leading me on to the end, Ever in love beside me, Never in storm or gloom, Dear to a cry of sorrow, Kindling beyond the tomb Light of an endless morrow?

2.

Yea, if 't were only a dream, Better it were to clasp it, Brood on it until it seems Real as the lives that grasp it. Helpless, feeble and lost, Groping in Wisdom's traces. Whirled like a leaf, and lost Out in the awful spaces— Oh, how the heart betrayed Bounds, into life upleaving, Trusting that He who made Watch over all is keeping.

Throughout the book there is no cant, nothing merely technical, but a wholesome human flavor, and a religious life beyond all conventionalism.

Next to this we should rank first, among the English books of poetry issued in the last few months, 'A Summer Night, and Other Poems' by Graham R. Tomson (London: Methuen). No one now living in English-speaking countries has the ballad-touch like Mrs. Tomson; and as we have pointed this out in her former books,

we may reaffirm it now, and quote in sufficient proof of it the following (p. 33):

THE FARM ON THE LINKS.

Grey o'er the pallid links, haggard and forsaken, Still the old roof-tree hangs rotting overhead, Still the black windows stare sullenly to seaward, Still the blank doorway gapes, open to the dead.

What is it cries with the crying of the curlews? What comes apace on those fearful, stealthy feet, Back from the chill sea-deeps, gilding o'er the sand-dunes,

Home to the old home, once again to meet?

What is to say as they gather round the hearth-stone, Flameless and dull as the feuds and fears of old?

Laughing and flinging still, menacing and mocking, Sadder than death itself, harsher than the cold.

Woe for the ruined hearth, black with dule and evil,

Woe for the wrong and the hate too deep to die!

Woe for the deeds of the dreary days passed over,

Woe for the grief of the gloomy days gone by!

Where do they come from? furtive and despairing, Where are they bound for? those that gather there,

Slow, with the sea-wind sobbing through the chambers,

Soft, with the salt mist stealing up the stair?

Names that are nameless now, names of dread and loathing,

Banned and forbidden yet, dark with spot and stain;

Only the old house watches and remembers,

Only the old home welcomes them again.

The new book of skits and fantasies by the late Mr. J. K. Stephen, 'Quo Musa Tendis?' (Macmillan), is generally regarded as a great falling off from his 'Lapsus Calami,' once reviewed in these columns, and certainly has in it nothing so good as his 'Rudyard's cease from Kipling,' which seemed to "fill a long-felt want"; but its author should have endeared himself to Americans by this warm-hearted tribute to the memory of Lowell (p. 65), dated August 13, 1891:

Lowell: the labors of your noble life, Your state-craft, and your high poetic skill Were aye a force that made for union, till The peace now reigning brushed the ancient strife Between the mighty hosts that gave you life, And us with kinship distance could not kill. I think your death has drawn me nearer still. Now with your praise our island home is rife, While rings your continent with equal praise; And here, as there, we sadly quote your lays. And Lowell! I who knew you, also know Some that you loved in England, who to-day Not only share your countless readers' woe, But mourn a dear old friend that's passed away.

Other recent English volumes do not seem remarkable. 'A Dream of Other Days,' by Lieut.-Col. Fife-Cookson (Putnams), is an East Indian tale of some animation, in which the author claims to have contrived a stanza of his own; the 'Poems' of the late William Caldwell Roscoe, edited by his daughter (Macmillan), are chiefly remarkable for two dramas, which have in them a touch of Elizabethan fire and flavor, reminding the reader of Beddoes; and 'A Vision of Life,' by the late William Gifford Palgrave (Macmillan), is a long and often abstruse and Dantesque poem, the fruit of the long studies and varied wanderings of one of the most Ulysses-like of modern Englishmen. Indeed, his last book published during his lifetime bore the name of the much-roaming Greek hero; and his biographer says that he knew Dante almost by heart, had learned many Oriental languages, had lived on every continent, and had gone in and out of several different churches. The vast material of his book requires a good deal of yeast to give it lightness, and this adjunct is not always forthcoming; yet the work is certainly a contribution to the history of the human mind.

Of recent American volumes the wittiest verse is undoubtedly to be found in 'Original Charades,' by Prof. L. B. R. Briggs of Harvard University (Scribners), which is as clever as a London volume of *vers de société*, and much less cloying. But the most valuable and enjoyable is the first complete edition of Maurice Thompson's 'Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which is all the more enjoyable be-

cause it comes from that very Crawfordsville, Indiana, which Matthew Arnold immortalized by his mistaken disdain. But it is a part of the very merit of these fresh and vigorous poems that they were born wholly outside that Europe which stretches, Emerson says, to the Alleghenies; and all their literary material, even when the poet longs for England, is American throughout. Even the very flavor of the words must be indigenous, as thus (p. 160):

"If I were a poet, my sweetest song Should have the bouquet of scuppernong, With a racy smack in every line From the savage juice of the muscadine.

"The russet persimmon, the brown papaw, The red wild plum and the summer haw, Service-berries and mandrake fruit, Sassafras bark and ginseng root, Should make my verse pungent and sweet by turns.

"And the odor of grass and the freshness of ferns, The kernel of nuts and the resin of trees, The nectar distilled by the wild honey-bees, Should be thrown in together, to flavor my words With the rest of the woods and the joy of the birds. "Who sings by note, from the page of a book, So sweet a tune as the brawl of a brook? Shall Homer or shall Anacreon Suggest as much as the wind or the sun?"

We have here the old favorites of Mr. Thompson's muse, "The Death of the White Heron," and "Between the Poppy and the Rose," and "In Exile"—the last touching vigorously the chord which still vibrates in American hearts, beyond all jealousy or injustice, to the touch of the mother-country. In a still higher spirit he now sings "To an English Sky-lark," "To an English Nightingale," in such strains of transatlantic cousinship as those much-sung birds never heard before; introducing them, with true Western cordiality, to the mocking-bird and the brown-thrush. Mr. Thompson wholly lays aside in his verse that polemic spirit which sometimes intrudes upon his prose; and hence his verse, at least, rarely fails to be fresh and free and agreeable; and nothing can be manlier than his hearty acceptance of the results of the war (p. 194):

"Not so! I am a Southerner! I love the South: I dared for her To fight from Lookout to the sea With her proud banner over me: But from my lips thanksgiving broke As God in battle-thunder spoke, And that Black Idol, breeding drouth And dearth of human sympathy Throughout the sweet and sensuous South, Was, with its chains and human yoke, Blown hellward from the cannon's mouth, While Freedom cheered behind the smoke!"

In marked contrast with the healthfulness and outdoor vigor of Mr. Thompson's lay is the new volume of posthumous poems of the late Mr. Francis S. Saltus, just now published, 'Flasks and Flagons—Fastels and Profiles—Vistas and Landscapes' (Buffalo: Moulton). The title well indicates the extraordinary exuberance and variety of this poet, who groups his themes for us collectively—so many kings to be celebrated, so many wines, so many nations—and then distributes to each a song or a sonnet. The reader wonders anew over the wealth and profusion of this wasted young life, for the portrait of the author reappears in every volume of the series to assure us, if the verse did not, that wasted it was. In this book there is less that is repulsive and ghastly than in its predecessors; and though it contains a poem on absinthe, there is less evidence in its pages of what the author calls the "glorious Lethe" of that beverage. Mr. Saltus died, it seems, on June 25, 1889, and his friend, Mr. John Ernest McCann, prefaces the volume with a memorial sonnet.

Mr. Edgar Fawcett, whose 'Songs of Doubt and Dream' have just appeared (Funk & Wagnalls), has much of the varied wealth of Mr. Saltus, though the fates have been kinder to him and made him a New York social reformer instead of an estrayed Paris flaneur.

He is indeed at his best when he is most a reformer, since then his spirit of defiance is employed for better purposes than where he seems defiant merely for amusement. His poem, "By a Window"—the reveries of a lost girl—has a touch of real nobleness, as well as much of dramatic power; but his purely literary poems are apt just to miss their mark through a flavor of self-consciousness, as in the following (p. 22):

A RETROSPECT.

Wandering where mortals have no power to gauge
The enormity of night that space outrolls,
Floated or paused, in shadowy pilgrimage,
Two disembodied souls.

One towered a shape with dark wild-trailing shroud,
With face by sorrow and anger seamed and drawn;
One loomed a holy glory, as when some cloud
Swims deep in baths of dawn.

World after world they gazed on, till beguiled
They flew toward earth, and hovering where she
swept,
One with a saturnine dejection smiled,
And one with slow tears wept.

"On that star," said the spirit of sombre mien,
As Dante I passed through pain's most blinding
heats."
"On that star," said the spirit of look serene,
"I suffered, and was Keats!"

The increasing cosmopolitanism of our country yields fruit in several volumes bearing Italian surnames on their title-pages; as for instance, the graceful 'Lyrics' by Cora Fabbri (Harpers), which are full of a just longing for Florence, and are adorned with "stornelli" and "strambotti," but, after all, leave it a little uncertain whether they were written in New York or London. More vigorous, though often cruder, are the 'Poems of Humanity, and Abelard to Heloise' (San Francisco: Griffith), by Lorenzo Sosso, who is elsewhere said to be general-delivery clerk in the San Francisco Post-office. These poems show a good deal of reading and are drawn from varied sources; but although they flow easily, the rhythm often halts, and there is a good deal of monotony in the note drawn.

In taking account, at periodical intervals, of any accumulated shelf of recent American poems, there are certain constantly recurring types, seldom to be missed. There is pretty sure to be the Indian or Aztec epic, the latter being represented on our table by Hanna H. Foster's 'Zululu, the Maid of Anahuac' (Putnams), and the former by a statelier tome, illustrated with a wealth of exceedingly wooden pictures, 'The Feast of the Virgins,' by H. L. Gordon (Chicago: Laird). Then there is the long religious poem, represented this time by 'Methodism: a Retrospect and an Outlook,' by Prof. Charles William Pearson of Northwestern University (Hunt & Eaton), this example being more simple and genuine than the average of its class. Then there is usually a volume of the verse called "passionate," with a somewhat repellent flavor about it, and enhanced by devout poems intermingled, as has been the fashion of erotic literature, since Marguerite of Navarre; this is usually by a woman, and it is conspicuously represented, for the present purpose, by the 'Unrest' of Mme. Higgins-Glenner (Lida Lewis Watson) (Dillingham), who dedicates her unwholesome mixture in part to her parents and in part, "with palms of peace and the pulse of passion," to her husband. Then there is the highly wrought romance of chivalry, of which the most obvious recent type is 'Yvernelle, a Legend of Feudal France,' by Frank Norris (Philadelphia: Lippincott), a book whose wealth of costly illustrations only makes the verse seem tamer.

There is the philosophic volume, here represented by the 'Dramatic Sketches and Poems' of Louis J. Block (Philadelphia: Lippincott); the Oriental poem, which is to be found richly and agreeably rendered in 'The Perfume

Holder,' by Craven Langstroth Betts (Saalfeld & Fitch); the volume of vivacious verse, here jauntily typified by 'A Beauty of Thebes, with Other Verses,' by John Goadby Gregory (Milwaukee: The Author); and the book of pure and elevated sentiment, with only too abundant facility for metrical expression, as exemplified in 'Sonnets—Songs—Laments,' by Cara E. Whiton-Stone (Boston: Cupples).

Of more real value, perhaps, than any of these are the few volumes—often dingy and ill-printed—in which there lurk, amid inflation or commonplace, a few pages of genuine local coloring, affording us something that is valuable, not so much because it is new as because it is true. What Mr. M. J. Gorton prized in his 'Drama of the Cycle' (Boston: Cupples) was probably the title-poem, but what the reader prizes is "A Ballad of Life on the Up-Grade [of the mine]," or the few Arkansas ballads. Mr. Albert E. S. Smythe sends forth 'Poems, Grave and Gay' (Toronto: Imrie & Graham), of which the best part really consists in the "Peanut Ballads," which are in the Belfast dialect. Mr. Meredith Nicholson, in 'Short Flights' (Indianapolis: Bowen), although he writes well and earnestly of Omar Khayyām, yet charms us most when he describes "Fire-Hunting," or tells us how "My Paddle Gleamed"; and Marguerite E. Easter, in 'Clytie, and Other Poems' (Boston: Philpot), most arrests the eye when she tells us that the later species of wild aster are poetically christened "Summer's Farewells" in Virginia (p. 103). Mrs. Piatt, writing from Ireland, still gives us some of the local coloring of her American home in her 'An Irish Wild-Flower, etc.' (Stokes), for she longs among primroses for the peach and apple-blooms by the Ohio (p. 37), and stoutly maintains the superiority of the blue-bird to the skylark (p. 15). She also shows her wonted sympathetic power in the title-poem of the book (p. 1):

AN IRISH WILD-FLOWER.

(A Barefoot Child by —— Castle.)
She felt, I think, but as a wild-flower can,
Through her bright fluttering rags, the dark, the
cold.
Some farthest star, remembering what man
Forgets, had warmed her little head with gold.
Above her, hollow-eyed, long blind to tears,
Leaf-cloaked, a skeleton of stone arose. . . .
Oh, castle-shadow of a thousand years,
Where you have fallen—is this the thing that
grows?

Charles Haddon Spurgeon, Preacher, Author, Philanthropist. With anecdotal reminiscences. By G. Holden Pike. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

From the Usher's Desk to the Tabernacle Pulpit. The Life and Labors of Charles Haddon Spurgeon. By the Rev. Robert Schindler. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

THE two lives of Mr. Spurgeon already out are specimens of that fungoid growth which is generally so luxurious on the new-made graves of famous or notorious persons. If there is any help in these towards making up a judgment on Mr. Spurgeon's life, and the degree to which it lends itself to biographical treatment, it does not appear to any great extent. We shall some time have a much better biography of him than either of these hasty and scrappy compilations, but his life was uneventful, and the strength of it went so largely into his preaching and the organized activities of his church that there was little left to be expressed in other ways. He printed, we are told, 2,200 sermons. No biography can ever report him as they do. They are the man himself.

The best part of Mr. Pike's volume is not his

own, but an introduction written by Dr. W. C. Wilkinson; though here also something must be allowed for the warmth of the writer's admiration and the freshness of the common loss. It is certainly very dangerous to say of Spurgeon's preaching: "Nothing less meteoric, nothing more solar, in its quality of radiance, has ever been set by God among the merely human and uninspired lights of the world to shed illumination on any Christian age." The teeth of time are very hard on such contemporary praise. But Spurgeon's diligence or sincerity cannot be overrated; and few, if any, writers of his time have been more widely read. One of his books, one of a multitude, reached a sale of 320,000 copies. Dr. Wilkinson lays much stress upon the quality of Spurgeon's voice, loud enough without apparent effort for the farthest off of the 5,000 in his Tabernacle, and not too loud for those close up to him. In this connection it may be well to note the fact that he despised all emollients for his throat and believed in such astringents as strong vinegar and beef-tea well peppered. Dr. Wilkinson praises his gift of language as unparalleled. He says its simple, easy flow was "so uninterrupted and so easy that it seemed like lubricity itself"—which suggests that he is no more disposed to let the devil have the good words than the good tunes.

Both of these volumes give the same impression of the suddenness and the stability of Mr. Spurgeon's London fame. He was a mere boy when he went to London after three years preaching in a Cambridge suburb, and in a few years he reached the height of his popularity. The gain after that was in the esteem of the better part of the community, in the correction of mythical reports, in the extension of his influence through the printing of his sermons and the elaborate organization of his parochial and propagandist work. To compare him with Beecher is quite unavoidable. His preaching was more picturesque than Beecher's; its picturesqueness was its greatest charm for the multitudes who flocked to hear him and who read his sermons with delight. Spurgeon had also a sustained sobriety and solemnity of speech and manner to which Beecher did not attain. The London preacher was the more possessed by his message. But Beecher's advantage over him was very great as a poet and as a humorist. Here there was no comparison. As for shocking the conventional proprieties of pulpit speech, Beecher probably did this a hundred times where Spurgeon did it once. The two men had a harmless vanity in common and they delighted equally in a strain of personal reminiscence. Spurgeon had great ability as an organizer, where Beecher had none at all.

Mr. Pike's volume makes no mention of Spurgeon's rupture with the Baptist Union, but Mr. Schindler's has a chapter on "The Down-Grade Controversy." It is brief, but it makes plain how complete that rupture was. Spurgeon was a Calvinistic Baptist, and the Baptist Union has decided that the Arminian doctrine has its unqualified sympathy. The same Union represents those general tendencies of "Progressive Orthodoxy" which need not be indicated here. This is a pregnant comment on the effect of Mr. Spurgeon's great and multifaceted activity. Genial, hearty, shrewd, and eloquent, taking the color of his style from the tinker of Bedford and the Puritan divines, the most heard and read of any preacher of his time, the object of enthusiastic admiration, his London pastorate of thirty-eight years' duration was a losing battle. He

"Strove against the stream, but all in vain."

It swept the English Baptists ever further and further from that Calvinistic course on which he would have had them sail for ever. The force of his genius measures the strength of the stream. But his own resistance to "the new theology" was not so absolute as he believed. The time-spirit did its work on him also. The temperature of his later sermons was much lower than that of the earlier. His tongue lost something of its daring in describing the misfortunes of the damned.

Sir William Johnson and the Six Nations. By William Elliot Griffis. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co.

SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON'S American career extended from 1738 to 1774. During this period, when American settlement encroached upon Western savagery, and when France and England contended for Indian allies in the struggle for the possession of the West, he was the leader along the Mohawk line, preserving harmony between the English and the Indians, and winning victories against the French in the final conflict. Mr. Griffis has presented a

clear and interesting view of this stirring period on the frontier, and has given us a sympathetic study of the masterful Irish pioneer. He has also given a very readable account of the Iroquois Indians. The Six Nations, by their location in the region controlling the water systems east of the Mississippi, by their peculiar organization, and by their priority in securing firearms, became the most powerful Indian confederacy on the continent, and contributed to the victory of the English over the French. It is one of the merits of the book that Mr. Griffis has dwelt upon the importance of the Indian influence in this formative period of our history. In some of his generalizations, however, the author is not free from rashness. For example, the assertion that it was the agricultural basis of their civilization which made the Iroquois superior to their neighbors, needs much modification. But a still more incautious declaration of Mr. Griffis's is that "our Government is in a measure copied from that" of the Iroquois. Aside from the absence of evidence that American statesmen in any measure "copied" the confederacy of the Iroquois, the author shows a lack of appreciation

of the distinction between *societas* and *civitas* in comparing the two. A favorite contention with Mr. Griffis is that the origins of many of the most important of our political institutions are to be sought in Holland rather than in England. He goes somewhat out of his way to urge this view in the present work; but it is a well-taken point that the composite middle region of the old colonies has not had its proper place in our histories as a factor in producing the present United States.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Oscar F. *The Presumption of Sex, and Other Papers.* Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.
Alexander, W. D. *A Brief History of the Hawaiian People.* American Book Co.
Bennhart, W. *Andersen's Bilderbuch ohne Bilder.* Boston: D. C. Heath. 35 cents.
Bowen, H. W. *Losing Ground: A Series of Sonnets.* Boston: J. G. Cupples. \$1.25.
Coleridge, Stephen. *The Sanctity of Confession: A Romance.* London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Crim, Matt. *In Beaver Cove and Elsewhere.* Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Denning, David. *The Art and Craft of Cabinet making.* London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. \$1.50.
Ehrich, Louis R. *The Question of Silver.* Putnam. 75 cents.

MARCH EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Public School Pioneering in New York and Massachusetts, Andrew S. Draper; Can English Literature be Taught? Brander Matthews; Defects in the School Children, Samuel R. Ryley; The Prussian Elementary Education Bill, Nicholas Murray Butler; The College President, Charles F. Thwing; The Catholic Controversy about Education, Thomas Bouquillon; The Study of Pedagogy at Cornell University, Samuel G. Williams.

EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.—The Study of Greek in Germany—Syllabus of Mr. Sully's Lectures on the Science of Education.

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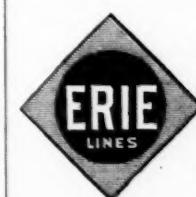
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